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ABSTRACT

This document contains 33 papers from a conference on research in adult, continuing, and community education. Representative papers include the following: "Highlander Folk School: A Commune Based on Intellectual Property" (Keith B. Armstrong, Donna J. Martin); "Women, Welfare and Mandated Education: An Analysis of Single Mothers' Meaning of Learning and its Relevance to Successful Programming" (Irene C. Baird); "Metacognition, Metamemory, and Commitment to Change Strategy: Enhancing Adoption of Innovation of Staff Development" (Cynths S. Blodgett-McDeavitt, John M. Dirkx); "Planning Adult Basic Education within a Lifelong Education Framework: Insights from Taiwan: (Yau-Jane Chen); "Continuing Education Program Administration: A Study of Competent Performance Indicators" (Peter S. Cookson, John English); "The LEPP Model: A New Approach to Planning Adult Education Programs" (Peter S. Cookson); "Older Adult Basic Education Needs and Activities from a Developmental Perspective" (James C. Fisher); "Teaching Adults to Write: A Situated Activity" (Catherine A. Hansman-Fergusin, Arthur L. Wilson); "Developing a Mentoring Program Improvement Evaluation Model" (John A. Henschke); "Aspects of Arab Culture Affecting Adult Learners: Gender, Class, and Religious Issues" (Jenny Hopkins); "Whole Language and Adult Literacy" (Jiazhen Hu); "Teacher Beliefs about Staff Development via Distance Education: A Research Approach in Planning Practice" (Ruth Schmidle Lavin, John M. Dirkx); '"Delivering University Adult Education in a Contested Political and Ethnic Environment" (Winston Lawrence); "Incorporating Self-Directed Learning into the Classroom" (Huey B. Long); "Toward a Theory of Learning Science for Scientific Literacy among Professional Educators" (Daniel R. Olson); "Goal Setting for the 21st Century: A Study of Public

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Perceptions of Adult Basic Education" (Richard A. Orem, Patricia Hunsaker); "Metacognitive Dimensions of the Selection and Use of Learning Strategies by Adult College Students and Traditional Age College Students" (Mary Ann Rasnak); and "Preparation for Peer Mentoring: A Pilot Project" (Susan Timm, Keith Armstrong, George Gutierrez). Papers include abstracts and references. (KC)

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Proceedings
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Fourteenth Annual
Midwest
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Conference
in Adult, Continuing, and
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Proceedings
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Fourteenth Annual

Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference

in Adult, Continuing, and Community Education

October 12-14, 1995

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1995 PROCEEDINGS

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NORTHERN ILLINOIS
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Dear Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Participants:

Welcome to the Fourteenth Annual Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference in Adult, Continuing and Community Education, hosted by National-Louis University and Northern Illinois University at National-Louis University's Wheaton Conference Center.

This conference was developed in the early 1980s by researchers and practitioners from midwestern universities with graduate programs in adult and community education and from professional associations to which adult, continuing, and community educators belonged. Since its fledgling beginnings, the conference has grown in the number of proposals submitted, the total number of papers presented, the number of students presenting, the geographic area from which participants are drawn, and the number of conference participants. To accommodate an increasing number of quality papers, an additional series of concurrent sessions has been added to this conference.

No conference of this sort would be possible without the work of a regional steering committee, a local planning committee, those persons submitting proposals and papers, and the many volunteers who have performed countless tasks necessary to the success of the conference. Nor would the conference be possible without the financial support of the sponsors and, in particular, the host institutions.

We are pleased to invite you to participate in all aspects of the conference: pre-conference tours, reception, general sessions, luncheons, and concurrent sessions. In this volume we provide copies of all of the papers being presented, half of which were developed while the presenters were graduate students.

As you attend the sessions, greet colleagues and friends, and reflect on the various papers and presentations, we hope you are encouraged to grow professionally in your own research and practice in adult, continuing, and community education.

Sincerely,

Richard A. Orem

Richard Orem
Northern Illinois University
Conference Co-Chair

Craig Mealman

Craig Mealman
National-Louis University
Conference Co-Chair

MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE
IN
ADULT, CONTINUING, AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

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The conference provides a forum for practitioners and researchers to discuss practices, concepts, evaluation, and research studies in order to improve practice in Adult Education. It facilitates dialogue and the initiation and pursuit of projects among individuals and groups working in the various fields of Adult Education. Through such discussion and collaboration participants contribute toward the realization of a more humane and just society through lifelong learning.

Prepared on behalf of the Midwest Research-to-Practice Conference Steering Committee by Boyd Rossing, May 28, 1991

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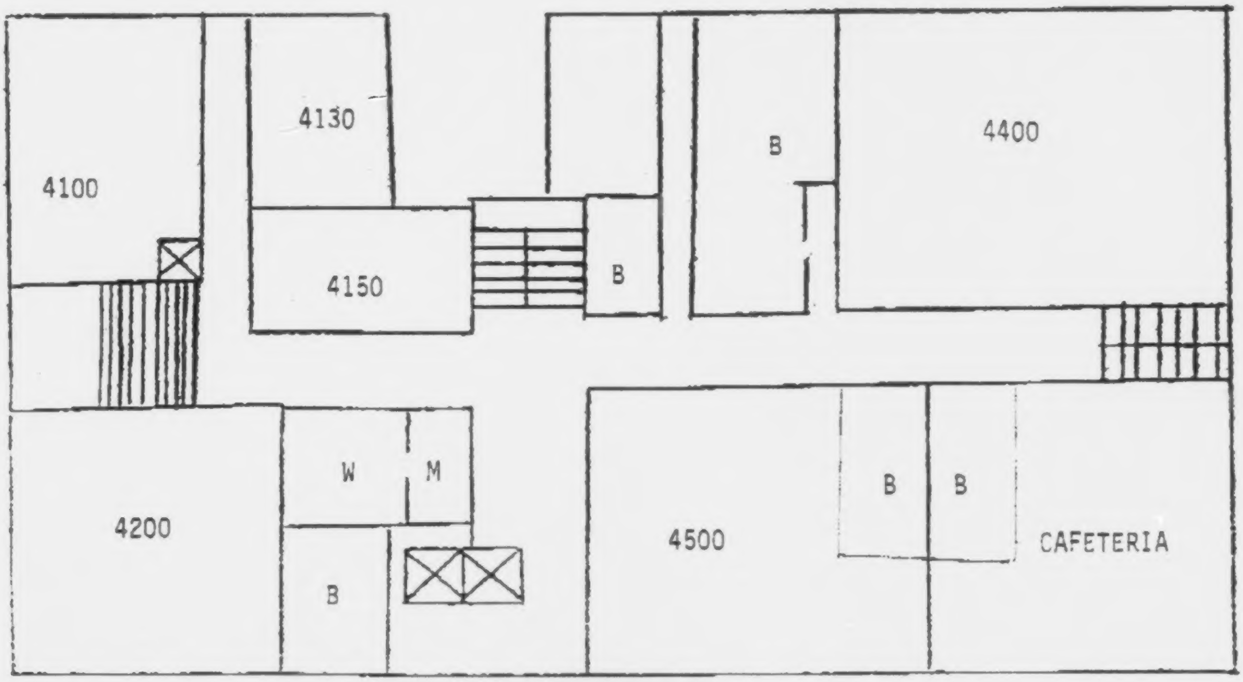
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14TH ANNUAL MIDWEST RESEARCH-TO-PRACTICE CONFERENCE IN ADULT, CONTINUING, AND COMMUNITY EDUCATION

October 12 - 14, 1995

CONFERENCE SCHEDULE

Thursday, October 12

12 noon-3:30 p.m.	Pre-Conference Tours (meet at Naperville Holiday Inn) Bellcore TEC Morton Arboretum
7 - 9 p.m.	Welcome Reception (Naperville Holiday Inn)

Friday, October 13

7:30 - 9 a.m.	Check-In (NLU Wheaton Conference Center)
9 - 10:30 a.m.	Welcomes from NIU and NLU Opening Panel: Issues and Concerns from Community-Based Educators
10:30 - 11 a.m.	BREAK
11 a.m.-12 noon	Concurrent Sessions I ◆ Karen T. Ricker and Maria T. Hruby *For Self and for Others: Why Young Adults Are Motivated to Volunteer in a Community Service Project* ◆ Tonette Rocco *A Dialogue with John Ohlinger: Issues of Equity in Adult Education* ◆ Peter S. Cookson, Judith P. Lawrence, & David L. Passmore *Non-Participation of Nurses in Sponsored Continuing Professional Education: An Empirical Test of the Isstal Model* ◆ Anne M. Devney *An Examination of the Crisis Learning Process as Experienced by Family Members of Critically Injured Relatives in an Intensive Care Unit: Implications for Adult Educators* ◆ Richard A. Orem and Patricia Hunsaker *Goal Setting for the 21st Century: A Study of Public Perceptions of Adult Basic Education*
12 noon-1:30 p.m.	LUNCH (included in fee)

1:30 - 2:30 p.m. Concurrent Sessions II

- John M. Dirkx
  Educating for Vocational Integration: The Role of Spirit and Soul in Education-for-Work
- Yu-Bi-Chang
  Planning Programs for Non-Traditional Education: Insights from the Citizens School in Kaohsiung City, Taiwan
- Irene C. Baird
  Women, Welfare & Mandated Education: An Analysis of Single Mothers' Meaning of Learning and its Relevance to Successful Programming
- Susan Timm, Keith Armstrong, and George Gutierrez
  Preparation for Peer Mentoring: A Pilot Project
- Kristina M. Boone
  Cognitive and Affective Gains from Nonformal Educational Publications

2:30 - 2:45 p.m. BREAK

2:45 - 3:45 p.m. Concurrent Sessions III

- Tonette Rocco
  Academic Accommodation: Meaning and Implications for Adult Education Practitioners
- John C. Donovan and James C. Fisher
  The Need for an Operational Definition of Quality to Guide Adult Education and Training Practice
- Yau-Jane Chen
  Planning Adult Basic Education within a Lifelong Education Framework: Insights from Taiwan
- Daniel R. Olson
  Toward a Theory of Learning Science for Scientific Literacy Among Professional Educators

3:45 - 4 p.m. BREAK

4 - 5 p.m. Concurrent Sessions IV

- Mary Ann Rasnak
  Metacognitive Dimensions of the Selection and Use of Learning Strategies by Adult College Students and Traditional Age College Students
- Tonette Rocco and G. Wayne West
  Toward a Conceptualization of Deconstructing Privilege

4 - 5 p.m. Concurrent Sessions IV (continued from previous page)

- Jenny Hopkins
  Aspects of Arab Culture Affecting Adult Learners: Gender, Class, and Religious Issues
- Antonia Gammage
  Expect the Unexpected: The Results and Challenges of Introducing Transformative Learning in Adult Basic Education
- Abney V. Gleespen
  Nurturing Democracy by Supporting Planners' Learning: Insights from Studies of Cognition

5:30 p.m. DINNER (on your own)

Saturday, October 14

8:30 - 9:30 a.m. Concurrent Sessions V

- Natalie M. Ferry
  The Use of Reflection-in-Action by Novice and Experienced Extension Adult Educators: Implication for Cooperative Extension Practice
- Ruth Schmidle Lavin and John M. Dirkx
  Teacher Beliefs about Staff Development via Distance Education: A Research Approach in Planning Practice
- Keith B. Armstrong and Donna J. Martin
  Highlander Folk School: A Commune Based on Intellectual Property
- Catherine A. Hansman-Ferguson and Arthur L. Wilson
  Teaching Adults to Write: A Situated Activity

9:30 - 9:45 a.m. BREAK

9:45 - 10:45 a.m. Concurrent Sessions VI

- Peter S. Cookson and John English
  Continuing Education Program Administration: A Study of Competent Performance Indicators
- Lorilee R. Sandmann
  The Post-Heroic Leadership Era: Implications for Adult and Continuing Education
- John A. Henschke
  Developing a Mentoring Program Improvement Evaluation Model
- Huey B. Long
  Incorporating Self-Directed Learning into the Classroom

9:45 - 10:45 a.m. Concurrent Sessions VI (continued from previous page)

- Kevin J. Freer, Verna Terminello, and Robin Clossman-Wright
  Redirecting Research and Practice to Meet the Changing Context of Workplace Literacy

10:45 - 11 a.m. BREAK

11 a.m. - 12 noon Concurrent Sessions VII

- Cynthia S. Blodgett-McDeavitt and John M. Dirkx
  Metacognition, Metamemory, and Commitment to Change Strategy: Enhancing Adoption of Innovation of Staff Development
- Winston Lawrence
  Delivering University Adult Education in a Contested Political and Ethnic Environment
- James C. Fisher
  Older Adult Basic Education Needs and Activities from a Developmental Perspective
- Warren R. Braden and James T. Edwards
  Empowering the "Dis-Enfranchised" via Enhanced Community-Based Mentoring Techniques within Existing Adult Education Programs
- Peter S. Cookson
  The Lepp Model: A New Approach to Planning Adult Education Programs

12:10 - 1:30 p.m. CLOSING LUNCH AND PANEL (included in fee)

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HIGHLANDER FOLK SCHOOL: A COMMUNE BASED ON INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY

Keith Armstrong and Donna J. Martin

ABSTRACT

Radical education communities, such as the Highlander Folk School, function in a futuristic sense while drawing from an intellectual property that is coded, or esoteric in nature. They attract participants while simultaneously drawing a discernment of those rooted in the status quo. The idea of Highlander, determined to be intellectual property which germinated from Myles Horton, grew strong and influential throughout the United States. Members and visitors shared in the creation of the idea of Highlander. In tracing the growth of Highlander, we demonstrate the widespread influence that resulted from continual struggles with vilification strategies used by governments and citizens. Constant defense when faced with the "wolf at the door" drew people closer together, and consequently, the idea of Highlander has transformed from mere influence to an esoteric domain.

INTRODUCTION

Myles Horton, the founder of Highlander Folk School, was a radical and charismatic leader who obtained the physical land in the Tennessee Cumberland mountains for the purpose of overthrowing the repressive values and norms then present in the United States. Horton's systemic implementation of cutting-edge ideas was incendiary to the notions of the South. External sources, including federal and state governments and citizens' councils for racial segregation, relentlessly developed ways to persecute Highlander, Horton, and others who visited and were associated with the school. Despite constant harassment, Horton continued to expand his interests from unions to literacy to racial equality--meeting fire with fire.

Radical adult educators have often set out to develop communes and communities. Most of these have been physical places. Others, as we attempt to demonstrate in his paper, are based on ideas--and imagination. In reviewing primary literature of Highlander Folk School, we contend that it was and is a commune and community based on intellectual property: "communitarian living [for] a group of idealistically motivated people with a capacity to realize their dream" (Oved, 1988, p. 5). From the outset, Horton studied communes and utopian communities when trying to conceptualize his own place for radical education. Horton had a place, for training community leaders, that existed both in a physical sense and in the imaginations of people throughout the United States and the world.

Intellectual property, as defined in the Oxford English Dictionary is, "a general name for property . . .which is the product of invention or creativity, and which does not exist in a tangible, physical form" (p. 1068). In this sense, the essence of Highlander Folk School was the intellectual property of Myles Horton and the staff that he worked with to train community leaders who, in turn, helped their individual physical communities. This shared intellectual property bound together the Highlander staff, workshop participants, community leaders, and the community of learners whose lives they touched in significant ways. Their unity, now a nonphysical commune, grew stronger as opposition to Horton's ideas increased.

Horton himself lived a generation ahead of his time. He, like many radical adult educators, studied inequalities and focused on creating the future by envisioning and developing new approaches. When a creative force that fuels a community comes from a different generation, as Horton did, it will attract outside threats and create internal threats to the community. Adult educators must be prepared for the inevitable internal and external conflicts when they operate from a creative, futuristic stance.

HIGHLANDER HISTORY

The history of Highlander Folk School is rich and leads practitioners and researchers to oceans of information regarding social activism for workers rights as union members, civil rights of all people, and environmental rights. As an adult education practitioner, Horton surveyed the different types of communities that had existed. Not until Horton met Dr. Lillian Johnson did he have a physical space for his dreams of a community school. Johnson, who had been sympathetic to human suffrage, had also studied the cooperative movement in Italy. She donated a house, land, and creative space to Horton and Don West to invent their idea of a community (Adams, 1975, p. 26). In 1932, Horton founded the Highlander Folk School.

While Johnson donated the physical space, the idea of Highlander as a place for people to gather and learn from each other originated with Horton. The first focus of Highlander was on the poverty and oppression of people in the surrounding communities in the Cumberland mountains. Horton and staff of Highlander became involved in assisting mining workers in strikes. They tried to offer whatever monetary help they could, but assistance was frequently in the form of organizing them into a group with a common focus. Once the groups of strikers had a common focus and were able to maintain their solidarity, they were more of a threat to the mine and business owners. Adams (1975) writes of the ensuing violence and struggle of Horton and Highlander staff to keep the workers focused on their collective oppression and visions of empowerment.

From the beginning in 1932, workshops at Highlander were racially integrated. In the 1950s, Highlander became a significant force in the civil rights movement. It is well known, among adult educators, that Rosa Parks attended a workshop at Highlander just a few months before her arrest which sparked the Montgomery Bus Boycott. Parks attributed her strength and perseverance to the experience she gained at a Highlander workshop at which there were "people of all races and backgrounds meeting and having workshops and living together in peace and harmony, and it was a place that I was very reluctant to leave" (Parks, 1970). By 1957, Highlander Folk School staff were clearly leaders in training community activists. Martin Luther King, Jr. had established himself as an activist for civil rights and attended Highlander's 25th Anniversary celebration in 1957.

Later in 1957, a billboard was posted across the South with the slogan, "Martin Luther King at Communist Training School." The charge that Highlander Folk School was a Communist Training School and that King had taken part in communist activities was a very strategic way for the governments of the South to discredit both the school and King.

Highlander Folk School operated under Horton's leadership and insights until the State of Tennessee closed Highlander Folk School in 1962. At the trial that resulted in the closure, Horton responded to the judge at one point, "Highlander isn't just a school. It's an idea, and you can't put an idea out of business by confiscating property" (Bledsoe, 1969, pp. 3-4). Two days after the judge ordered Highlander Folk School to be padlocked, Horton took out a charter for a new school, Highlander Education and Research Center, and continued his vital work with community problems.

"Highlander possesses no blueprint or dogmas but a spirit which remains the same in substance although not in form" (Horton, 1958, p. 13). With strong support of adult education principles, Horton's radical style contrasted with more liberal approaches to education. His unique style of bringing people together, "getting people organized so they have a voice, so they can participate in the decisions that affect their lives" (Horton, 1966, p. 11), brought forth whatever form of oppression was on the community's minds. In consciousness raising formats, people came together, found their individual yet common voice, and began a process to discover solutions. A radical adult educator today with a vision of a community or commune must also survey different types of communities to learn from their successes and failures, challenges and crises, and internal and external threats. When designing a commune, a leader must be concerned with its preservation and be ready to exercise strategies to handle threats to the ideas, creations, and vitality of the community.

COMMUNES AND SOCIAL MOVEMENTS

Social movements (like immigrations from Europe to America for liberty and tolerance) came "in organized waves. . .whose motivation was. . .ideological. . .[and] were fertile soil for the communal idea" (Oved, 1988, p. 7). Both commune members and social movement members are in a constant struggle for social change during the lifespan of the commune or social movement. A dissatisfaction with the status quo binds members together in a struggle for a more equal society. James Andrews (1980) suggests the fluidity of social movements and writes they are "growing out of the environment, intruding into the environment, reacting to the environment, and becoming part of the environment" (p. 274). The idea of Highlander grew from Horton's and other community members' dissatisfaction with the environment, the status quo; it intruded into the environment by trying to change the status quo; it reacted in self-defense to the environment of the South which was threatening and often violent; and became a part of the environment by continuing to operate and influence persons throughout the United States. An intriguing theory of social movements that leads one away from simply examining the organization, functions, and lifespan of social movements is Michael McGee's meaning-centered approach. McGee (1980) writes that movement theory should focus on "what 'moves' in history. . .the human ideas which mediate and interpret the facts of our experience," not "the material things which are our physical environment" (p. 238). Both Andrew's and McGee's approaches suggest the esoteric nature of social movements.

Once a commune became esoteric, the power of its social movement cannot be specifically identified and systematically destroyed. However, the establishment or ruling authority has many strategies available to delegitimize and vilify members and leaders. Marsha Vanderford's (1980) research focuses specifically on the strategies of vilification that both sides of a movement practice in trying to discredit each other--the enemy. She writes that vilification of the enemy first entails identifying the enemy as a "specific adversarial force," "ungenuine," "malevolent," having "diabolical motives," not simply as "good people with a difference of opinion" (pp. 166-167). When promoting strategies of vilification, one side also "magnifies the opponents' power" (Vanderford, 1980, p. 167). This magnification of the other's power can also easily amplify the esoteric appeal of social movements and of communes.

DISCUSSION

The intellectual property of the idea of Highlander was, and still is, an essence that the governments and critics of Highlander could not padlock and confiscate. The idea of Highlander was and is subversive. The continuing strategies the governments of the South used to discredit and vilify Highlander Folk School as a communist training school served to amplify the power of Highlander, Horton, King, and other civil rights activists. Highlander Folk School was attributed with the "diabolical motives" of spreading communism throughout the United States. As people gathered together to share ideas and participate in a consciousness raising format of adult education, outside forces were threatened by the continued essence and power of the idea of Highlander. When faced with external threats, group members must draw together for survival. Horton himself stated in a 1958 speech, "there are two things that draw people together. Persecution and common aspiration" (p. 1).

When people left the physical place of Highlander, they took the liberating qualities of Highlander's intellectual property with them to their communities, their sites of action against the status quo. As Rosa Parks, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Horton discovered, the acquisition of liberating qualities have an antithetical component.

Although Highlander's intellectual property was the tool it used to attempt to dismantle oppression, this intellectual property is only a microcosmic part of a larger intellectual property, to which even the oppressor belongs. Just as the United States has specific oppressions which people, like Horton, have spent their lives overthrowing, the "United States is [also] the only place where voluntary communes have existed continuously for 250 years" (Oved, 1988, p. xiv). In cohabitation, the dream of freedom and the oppressors of freedom have existed in America. How? Esoteric communes are strengthened by their "relationship with a hostile, often antagonistic environment while guarding their uniqueness and their inner strength in order to survive in an alien world" (Oved, 1988, p. xiv). This paradox is the stuff which fuels radical adult educators who accept the esoteric nature of life and their part in it. For Horton, his commune gave him and his fellow educators a place to sharpen their wit, share their strategies and do what they were born to do: meet their protagonist.

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WOMEN, WELFARE & MANDATED EDUCATION:
AN ANALYSIS OF SINGLE MOTHERS' MEANING OF LEARNING AND ITS RELEVANCE TO SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMMING

Irene C. Baird

ABSTRACT

This study analyzed how a group of single welfare mothers, heads of household who are mandated to participate in a pre-employment program with an educational component, viewed learning from their perspectives. Welfare policy crafters assumed a highly illiterate population whose "deficiencies" would be remediated through participation in existing, voluntary basic education. Studies indicate, however, a majority of such programs are not preparing the women for job entry. Since success is often contingent on the program itself, interaction between participants and staff and participants' perceptions and expectations based on past school experiences, the sociology of education provided the theoretical framework. Research was conducted within the qualitative paradigm with sixteen welfare mothers in a mandated educational program agreeing to in-depth interviews. Five themes emerged: significance of the caring teacher, desirable learning environment, match of instruction to learning ability and preference, enhanced self-esteem, distinction between kinds of learning. Test results confirmed learning success for the studied group; however, conflict theory remains applicable since assumptions about their "deficiencies" prescribe policy mandates without attention to what meaning these women give to learning.

INTRODUCTION

To date there is little information on the meaning of learning for single welfare mothers who are legislatively mandated to participate in a pre-employment program with an educational component. Crafters of the Family Support Act of 1988 (Institute for Research on Poverty, 1988-1989) assumed a high rate of illiteracy among this rapidly increasing population. In order to meet potential employers' articulated need for, at least, reading, writing and reasoning skills they mandated for them the inclusion of basic education in pre-employment training. Job Opportunities and Basic Skills (JOBS) programs, administered by welfare departments, were the federally designated medium for providing the requisite preparation. A Southport Institute for Policy Analysis (SIPA) study (Chisman & Woodworth, 1992) found the educational component within JOBS was not achieving its goal of providing adequate educational preparation for removing welfare participants from their dependent status. SIPA reported that administrators and employers equated possession of a GED with employability; that, as a cost saving measure, many welfare recipients were placed in existing ABE or GED programs that often bore little resemblance to the kind of learning the women needed for successful job entry, let alone retention and mobility. The Manpower Demonstration Research Corporation (MDRC) study within California (Martinson & Friedlander, 1933) focused its evaluation of mandated education on its effect on employment outcomes; it found limited benefits accruing from the educational component.

The intent in this study, in contrast, was to focus on what learning meant to a specific group of single welfare mothers, a topic hitherto unexamined. Since the literature states that the foundations for learning are established in school (Luttrell, 1993; Keddie, 1980; Westwood, 1980), the women's responses would provide planners and adult educators with insights on how they viewed learning within and outside of the schooling context and what impact this had on mandated post-schooling. The sociology of education provided the theoretical framework since the purpose of its theories is to explore how society classifies, transmits and evaluates knowledge (Bernstein, 1971). Conflict theory within that framework focuses on the inequalities, exploitation and coercion foisted and perpetuated on lower socioeconomic classes (Giroux, 1983; McLaren, 1989). This paradigm, therefore, seemed appropriate for viewing a population stereotyped as being idle, dependent, illiterate and requiring welfare policy mandates as remediation for such "deficiencies."

Given the purpose of trying to understand meaning single welfare mothers attached to learning, the research was conducted within the qualitative paradigm using in-depth interviews. Sampling was purposive and size was determined by those women in a mandated program who chose to be interviewed. Sixteen agreed to do so. Each interview lasted one and a half to two hours, was taped and transcribed verbatim. A flexible, open-ended guide ensured inclusion of all questions and allowance for unexpected information. Emergent categories provided four foci: schooling, post-schooling, out of school learning and the learner. Five major themes evolved: From the school learning context they were the significance of the caring teacher, the importance of teaching techniques conformable to the learning styles and abilities of the participants and the desirability of an environment conducive to learning. Themes resulting from focus on the learner included the positive perspective of self as person and learner and the identification and distinction between kinds of learning. Although welfare policy is destined for change, the insistence on job training and education may remain a constant. This study, therefore, is significant in that, though in a limited way, it provides some insights into the meaning and manner of learning for a female population that may be faced with stronger mandates within pre-employment preparation. From the practice perspective, therefore, it should assist both planners and adult educators in designing programs that would better prepare the participants for self-sufficiency. This study indicates to researchers the need for further study on women's learning, specifically among those women from diverse racial, ethnic and social class groups who do not seem to be attracted to adult education.

SINGLE WELFARE MOTHERS AND LEARNING

The words "single welfare mothers" evoke a negative stereotype, especially in the current climate of welfare reform debate. The perception is that this is a homogeneous group ... illiterate, idle, unwilling to work to support themselves and their children. By being provided public assistance, they are viewed as being "easy in their poverty," to use Benjamin Franklin's words (Garfinkel & McClanahan, 1986, page 91). The sixteen participants in this study shared in common their socioeconomic status and their participation in a mandated program; otherwise, each was viewed as an individual with her own abilities, interests and views. One was Anglo-American, one Puerto Rican, and fourteen, African-Americans. Their average age was 30 and all had at least one child, no more than five. Five were high school graduates, one with honors. Of the eleven who had dropped out of school between the eighth and twelfth grades, three had received their GEDs; the others were working towards that goal. A few participants liked school; a few hated it intensely. The majority thought it was "OK" because of friends, activities and classes such as cooking, sewing, gym. The significance of early schooling was that irrespective of her reaction to school, each participant encountered at the elementary or middle school level one special teacher who took time to help, thereby making a difference during the time the participant interacted with him or her. To quote one woman, "he seemed like he cared ... for us to learn."

The mandated pre-employment program was located at a community college. It evoked a unanimous positive reaction even though it was mandated, had a structured format and required attendance and participation. The women saw in the teachers the same traits that characterized the early school "special one:" They cared, they took time, they wanted them to succeed. Evidence of such traits, as well as the teachers' attention to their learning preferences, had a positive impact on their performance and progress. Learning was more effective for them when teachers related math concepts to "real-life" situations such as illustrating the use of fractions in cooking measurements. They learned best by doing, that is, with a hands-on approach of being shown and then repeating the process for reinforcement. Said one woman,

> It's easier for me to learn with someone that will teach me than learning from a book ... A book has so many words to it and on one subject there can be so many ways to learn it, and if you don't understand the book to learn, then you will never get it.

They considered the community college ideal: They were treated as adults in a quiet, uncrowded atmosphere where classes were small and paced. The campus, itself, was also non-threatening because of a diverse student population into which the women blended comfortably. As a result of the teachers, the environment and instructional methods, they experienced enhanced self-esteem. As learners they perceived themselves as quick and above average provided they were taught "the right way," namely through observation and doing for reinforcement.

They made a sharp distinction between learning they equated with school, where you are taught something and primarily with books, and common sense, the way you handle life experiences. The ability to finally understand and be able to do fractions they perceived as a more legitimate form of learning than replacing the transmission in a car, which several women could do. They felt each kind of learning had its place, with the exception of one woman. She noted that although she equated learning with books and school, "a lot of school work is common sense ... once you know that one plus one equals two, ain't nobody got to tell you nothing. That comes natural."

ANALYSIS

Based on the data, with key descriptors in the participants' language, the single welfare mothers in this study considered themselves average to good learners who understood, comprehended material that was shown to them. They defined "the right way" as watching what was being shown, once or several times, followed by "hands-on practice, repetition to master the material. It was "mapping meaning" onto doing the task (Gowen, 1992, page 82), demonstrating that learning had taken place. Ideally, it was a self-paced process that occurred in a quiet environment, sometimes independently, preferably as a cooperative venture. Ongoing counseling services sustained them and recognition of even small successes enhanced self-esteem.

Unfortunately there is limited research on the issues of learning addressed in this study, particularly with reference to low income and marginalized females (Baird, 1994; Baird, 1991). Luttrell (1993) supports not only the use of school experiences as a starting point for research on women's learning, but also reinforces the potential significance of this study. She writes that there is very little documentation in this area and limited ethnographies of adult basic education programs and/or classrooms. She adds that this is "a curious gap given the conventional wisdom that past schooling experiences are determining factors in current educational pursuits" (page 513).

Why did these women both learn and feel they learned well in this program? The caring teacher, the environment and the teaching techniques were significant factors. Fine (1985) contends that there must be a reason for coming to school: a climate that nurtures intellectual curiosity, initiative and creativity. Otherwise there is a feeling of helplessness and hopelessness. The positive responses of the single welfare mothers to the pre-employment program and resulting self-esteem attest to their having found such a climate there. Belenky et al's study on the lives of college women may also be applicable to the participants in this study. She found that even the rebellious ones wanted some structure in their educational environments, " ... overburdened by home and work responsibilities [they] had neither the time nor energy to map out their own strategies" (1986, page 204).

Bertholet (1982) found in his studies of learning style differences within vocational-technical education that there was a correlation between how teachers learn and teach and that students learn best if teaching and learning styles match. Though in this study teachers' learning preferences were unknown, their teaching styles conformed to the single welfare mothers' reaction to how they learned best. The following quotation reflects the opinions of the majority:

> Well I rather them show me how to do and then let me figure it out from there on my own. And I feel good about me getting it myself and she showing me one time. Makes me feel like I did it on my own.

In the pre-employment class the women were encouraged to do, until they "comprehended," their definition for having learned. This approach to learning, of "mapping meaning" onto action rather than words, is confirmed in Gowen's (1992) study of teaching methods for hospital employees.

Though the single welfare mothers distinguished between book learning and common sense, one of them reflected Luttrell's (1989) working class women's perceptions on learning, "... you have to use your head, your knowledge and your common sense ... just try to solve [the problem] the best you know how." The enhanced self-esteem these women felt as a result of their learning experiences within the JOBS program is congruent with Gowen's finding. She noted the importance of the acquisition of the GED to self-esteem. "Earning a GED is symbolically powerful in part because it is not simply a credential for advancement for work, but an acknowledgement of self-worth (1992, page 115). The women in this study not only expressed "... my esteem is higher than ever" as a result of their academic performance, they also seemed to associate the acquired learning with the expectation of finding a job that would lead to self-sufficiency and a better life.

Despite this seemingly successful educational experience, however, equality for these women is still illusive. They experience what Willis calls "an in-built disadvantage of having the wrong class culture" (1977, page 28): They are single welfare mothers, heads of household, dependent on public assistance. The reality they face, once employed, is an immediate increase in housing costs and, within a year, the loss of medical benefits. For the black women, according to Ogbu (1987), there is the additional factor of their believing that education does not pay given their parents' and community members' subjection to unemployment, underemployment and discrimination. Paradoxically, therefore, though the JOBS program succeeded in preparing these women for employment, the economic and social realities facing them underscore the inadequacy of an approach that sees education as the single solution to reducing reliance on welfare; it also underscores from this perspective the appropriateness of the conflict paradigm.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The implications from this study are that even a "captive" student population can be retained, respond favorably and benefit academically from interaction with a teacher who cares, who values them as adults, who is able to relate the educational material to their "real life" experiences in a way they understand, in an environment conducive to learning. This study does not imply that exact replication of the model assures success; it does imply, however, that these are elements worthy of consideration. Since the focus in this study was on learning, one of the salient learning issues was the definition the women made between kinds of learning, namely school learning and common sense. The question becomes one of how to resolve learning for the work place without diminishing or devaluing the kind of learning with which these women are comfortable. From a larger perspective it is one of which kind of learning is valued and which, delegitimatized; it then becomes a social issue for further race, class and gender studies.

Given the current pre-eminence of welfare reform and its targeting the lack of preparation for employment and consequent dependence among single welfare mothers, the issue deserves attention by researchers and practitioners. There is scant information on how best this population learns in order to succeed in employment preparation and job retention. Gowen (1992), for example, stresses the need for further studies of women's learning stating there is little known about the meaning women attach to knowledge they have or are seeking and its relation to their lives. Luttrell refers to the small amount of research on adult literacy learners, especially on their perceptions of knowledge and skills. She adds that the theme of her research, concepts of gender, knowledge, power, "reminds us that what is most memorable about school is not what is learned but how we learn" (1993, page 538). This study concurs. It also points up the need for information about women other than the traditional white middle class. Such studies should be significant to welfare reformers who base their decisions on assumptions rather than on adult education research findings, and to planners looking for effective methods for designing successful programs for a hard to reach audience mandated for pre-employment preparation.

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METACOGNITION, METAMEMORY, AND COMMITMENT TO CHANGE STRATEGY: ENHANCING ADOPTION OF INNOVATION OF STAFF DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT

While transfer of information to practice is a goal of professional development programs for educators, the gap between learning of new information and application to practice continues to be problematic. Synthesizing theoretical viewpoints of innovation adoption and diffusion theory, normative re-education strategies, self-efficacy theory and commitment development strategies with metacognitive and goal setting theories strategies resulted in an enhanced Commitment to Change (CTC) strategy. Self-reported levels of implementation of desired changes in practice were collected three and seven months after sessions of the Nebraska Adult Basic Education Teacher Training Institute over three years. The first two years, sessions one through four, utilized the CTC model developed by Dirkx and Turner (1993) while the third year, sessions five and six, implemented the enhanced CTC model. Including strategies which facilitate transfer of learning into practice, the revised CTC fostered increased long-term implementation while maintaining integrity of participants' satisfaction and perceptions of continued importance of desired changes.

Professional development continues to be a priority for teachers concerned with challenging conditions which effect all levels of education. Inservices, continuing education, and other formal and informal staff development courses abound for educators, and desired outcomes include transfer of new information to education practice. The gap between professional development and application to practice is well known. Traditional staff development models have consisted of "update" designs, largely ignoring the importance of participants' prior beliefs, values and attitudes in the process of adopting innovations or changes in their practice, contributing to little actual application of new knowledge to practice.

An alternative to update delivery, the Commitment to Change (CTC) process was developed and applied to the Nebraska Adult Basic Education Teacher Training Institute (TTI) (1992-1993 and 1993-1994) and included a process by which educators may track progress and self-evaluate importance of, satisfaction with, and barriers to desired change in practice. Four theoretical viewpoints were synthesized to develop the CTC process, including innovation adoption and diffusion theory (Rogers, 1983); normative re-education strategies (Chin and Benne, 1985); behavioral change and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977, 1982); and commitment development strategies (Devlin-Scherer, Devlin-Scherer, Schaffer, and Stringfield, 1983).

Barriers to change remained, spurring researchers to ask how the existing CTC process could be modified to further enhance change in practice. Barriers maintained a consistent profile: lack of time, lack of cooperation or collaboration with supervisors or agency partnerships, inefficient programming issues, and so on. Questions driving the CTC study for the fifth and sixth sessions (1994-1995), then, followed two themes: Can the theoretical understanding of CTC be expanded by incorporating cognitive psychology theories pertaining to metacognition and metamemory? and Would such an expanded version or strategy foster improved change in teacher practice?

COMMITMENT TO CHANGE: SESSIONS ONE THROUGH FOUR

Turner and Dirkx (forthcoming) developed the CTC strategy to be used at the two sessions of the 1992-1993 TTI, a state-wide residential staff development program for paid instructors, instructional volunteers, coordinators, and program directors of adult basic education. Key elements of the CTC strategy included early adoption decisions; learner understanding of content; mediation of change through norms, values, beliefs, etc.; declaration of commitment; and participant follow-up. Also implemented at the 1993-1994 Institute, the learning environment each year consisted of two instructional sessions of two and one-half days each, four to six months apart. At the outset of each session, the CTC strategy was discussed at length with the participants at which time values, beliefs and attitudes toward their own practices, impact of adoption of innovation on practice were explored. Participants were instructed to consider three criteria: (a) changes must be *very specific* and capable of being implemented over a period of time; (b) changes must be *very important* to the practitioner; and (c) participants should feel *very confidant* about the feasibility of implementing the specified changes. Discussion also included information about Dweck and Leggett's (1988) motivational model and goal orientation. Including information about learning goals and performance goals before launching into the topics provided a framework for exploring goals and objectives for attending the TTI while increasing teacher's self-efficacy.

Participants were given worksheets and instructed to make notes about changes while engaged in the session. Additional time was allocated at the end of each instructional session at which time participants were asked to examine their worksheets and identify one specific change for each topic addressed at the session that they would like to make in their practices as a result of their participation in the TTI. To promote feasibility, participants were encouraged to limit the total number of identified changes to three, even when more than three topics were covered at each session. Final statements of intended changes were given to the coordinator before departure, implementing the public declaration aspect of change strategy.

Final statements were transcribed and returned to participants participants were asked to reflect, self-evaluate, and respond to a questionnaire which addressed a) the extent of implementation of each identified change; b) level of satisfaction with the change; c) level of perceived importance; d) barriers to implementation; and e) effects of implementation on practice, students, and the participants. Seven month follow-ups were conducted for the first, third and fifth sessions.

Responses to the questionnaires were analyzed and discussion at subsequent sessions focused specifically on factors which either facilitated or impeded the change process and on the nature of change itself. Overall, participants indicated relatively high levels of success regarding the extent of change and very high levels of satisfaction with changes in practice as a result of using the CTC strategy. Barriers to implementation remained, however, and additional attention to the CTC model was pursued.

ENHANCED VERSION: SESSIONS FIVE AND SIX

Metacognitive, metamemory, and goal setting strategies drawn from cognitive psychology were incorporated into the established CTC process for the fifth and sixth sessions of the TTI (1994-1995) to enhance overall change in practice. Metacognition is a term which means thinking about thinking. For purposes of this research, metacognition refers to the awareness which practitioners have of their own thinking processes which are vital to fostering change in practice.

Metamemory refers to thinking about memory (Glover, Ronning, & Bruning, 1990, p. 102), and involves three skills – awareness, diagnosis, and monitoring – which enabled participants to consider knowledge about how their own thought processes contribute to successful adoption of change. Awareness is "being aware of the need to remember" (p. 103). Diagnosis involves understanding "what it will take to remember" (p. 103) further involving assessment of the difficulty and determination of the demands which retrieval will require. Monitoring involves self-assessment of one's progress as information is committed to memory (p. 105). These major skills are central to transfer of learning, or change in practice.

Goal orientation also impacts outcomes. Performance goals are those in which learning takes place to meet a outcome criteria, such as attaining the high school equivalency (GED) diploma. Learning goals are mastery-oriented and geared toward gaining intrinsic reward. For example, a mastery-oriented person will view the challenge as just that, a challenge which will bring satisfaction when resolved. Dweck and Leggett (1988) discuss research during which manipulation of subject's goals (performance vs. learning) resulted in an effect on goal orientation of the subjects. Farrel and Dweck (in Dweck and Leggett, 1988) studied children's tendency to transfer knowledge to novel tasks and found that learners with learning (mastery-oriented) goals more actively transferred knowledge to new tasks than subjects with performance goals (p. 260).

METHODS

DEMOGRAPHICS

The 1994-1995 TTI participants were mostly women, with one male practitioner in attendance, and were teachers, volunteers, coordinators, and directors of adult basic education. Experience in the field ranged from more than 20 years to new, first-year practitioners. They represented programs from large urban and small rural areas of Nebraska.

The TTI was a residential, three-day session held in central Nebraska. The umbrella topic of these sessions addressed motivation and retention of the ABE learner. Participants were asked to identify three changes in practice they intended to make as a result of their participation in the Institute. For each session, a one-month follow-up letter confirmed identified changes and offered participants to make any changes or corrections necessary. Three-month and seven-month follow-up questionnaires sought progress reports in five areas.

Follow-up questionnaires was identical to those used in previous years, requesting information in five areas. The level of implementation of each intended change was scored on a nominal scale (1= 0-25%, 2= 26-50%, 3= 51-75%, 4= 76-100%, 5= NA or blank). Levels of satisfaction with implementation of intended changes were measured using a Likert scale (1= very satisfied, 2= somewhat satisfied, 3= somewhat dissatisfied, 4= very dissatisfied, and 5= blank). Participants were asked to self-assess whether the change continued to be important for practice. These responses were also measured on a Likert scale (1= very important, 2= somewhat, 3= not very, and 4= not at all and 5= no response). Participants were also asked to self-evaluate their perceptions of barriers to change and effects of changes on co-workers and learners.

ENHANCED PRE-TTI STRATEGIES

Crafting an atmosphere which reflects mastery-oriented goals models a success orientation toward change. Such strategies were modeled by Institute facilitators during the fifth and sixth sessions during the 1994-1995 TTI. Existing pre-Institute strategies remained in place. Explanation covered metacognition and metamemory in the CTC process. Discussion included the three skills. *Awareness:* Discussion of the CTC requirements, with emphasis upon personal values and beliefs and goal orientation with consideration of feasibility, was intended to impact participants' memory recall. Outlining the steps of the CTC process, including description of the worksheet, selecting intended changes in practice (emphasizing the importance of specificity, importance, and feasibility), and the follow-up mailings, participants were familiarized with the process and, therefore, better able to direct their own learning to match their own needs. *Diagnosis:* Because participants understood that they would be asked to select a specific change to implement in practice, they were able to encode the topics presented at the Institute to allow for more effective retrieval. *Monitoring:* Periodically during the sessions (about every twenty minutes) participants were allowed two or three minutes to double-check their notes and ask questions of their neighbors. This strategy slowed the flow of information to allow formulation of questions for clarification while still in the learning session.

ENHANCED POST-TTI STRATEGIES

Six main steps comprised post-session discussion: (a) *Reflection:* Time for individual reflection ensured that intended changes were highly important to the individual; (b) *Decision about desired changes:* Participants formulated, in writing, specific changes to practice; (c)*Visualization:* Participants were encouraged to "see" interactions with students and co-workers in an attempt to "feel" the success of implementation and predict potential effects and barriers; (d)*Public declaration:* Participants engaged in small group interaction to discuss the nature and feasibility of desired changes. By mixing members of the small group to represent different ABE programs and different job types (paid instructor, volunteer, program director, or volunteer coordinator) perspective was gained regarding feasibility and the potential for successful implementation from the point of view of others outside the dynamics of any single ABE program; (e) *Reconsideration:*

Fine tuning or changing of intended changes occurred during this phase; and (f) *Declaration:* The formal, written statement describing the desired change, accompanied by a statement about how the change was developed. Instructions for writing specific, effective statements of intended change were also discussed within the framework of values, beliefs and attitudes. Practitioners were encouraged to consider their initial goals when determining their desired changes in practice and think in terms of specific changes rather than broad statements. Examples of effectively and ineffectively written statements from past TTIs were presented, while care was taken not to use statements written by practitioners who were present.

LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

Subjects of this study were not selected using random sampling, but were ABE practitioners who were able to arrange to participate in the residential format of the TTI sessions. In the case of third-year TTI, participation was limited to those practitioners who were recommended by program directors. As a result, subjects are not intended to be a representative sample of all educators, or even all ABE practitioners.

FINDINGS

QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

Implementation of desired changes resulting from the 1994-1995 TTI (the fifth and sixth sessions) was compared with results from the 1992-1993 sessions (the first and second sessions). For sessions one and five (autumn sessions), results were obtained at three and seven months. Sessions two and six (early spring sessions) were evaluated at three months only. All sessions indicated movement toward success with long-term changes in practice. Dissatisfaction tended to be coupled with decreased perceptions of importance, very low implementation, and focus on barriers. Self-assessed estimations of progress toward implementation for sessions one and two (1992-1993 TTI) and sessions five and six (1994-1995 TTI) are reported in Tables 1 and 2.

Self-reported implementation increased from the 1992-1993 TTI to the 1994-1995 TTI. Implementation of greater than 50% at three months after the first session was 61.4% while 62.8% after session five. Seven month follow-up reports of greater than 50% implementation were 59.9% after session one but 66.7% after session five. Reports of less than 26% were lower for the first session. Implementation of 51 - 75% was lower at three and seven months for the fifth session, but implementation was greater at three and seven months after the fifth session for the 76 - 100% level than for the first session.

Participant satisfaction with changes in practice was very similar between the sessions. Three and seven months after sessions one and five, average satisfaction was 1.8. Three and seven months after session five, 88% of participants still consider their changes to be important, but the numbers shifted from 41.7% as somewhat important and 45.8% as very important three months after session five to 33.3% as somewhat important and 66.7% as very important seven months after session five.

Table 1.
Self-reported level of implementation of change following sessions one and five

Percent of Implementation	Percent of participants self-reporting change at 3 and 7 months			
	3 months		7 months	
	one	five	one	five
0 - 25	9.7	20.8	12.7	18.7
26 - 50	19.3	20.8	21.8	14.6
51 - 75	45.2	35.4	32.7	25.0
76 - 100	16.1	27.4	27.2	41.7
no response	9.7	0	5.4	0

Table 2.
Self-reported level of implementation of change following sessions two and six

Percent of Implementation	Percent of participants self-reporting change at 3 months	
	two	six
0 - 25	14.8	21.4
26 - 50	24.1	28.6
51 - 75	24.1	25.0
76 - 100	37.0	25

Table 2 validates findings reported in Table 1. After three months, implementation of greater than 50% in sessions one and two is 61.3% and 61.1% respectively, and 62.8% and 50.0% for sessions five and six. Distribution of levels of implementation, however, show higher levels of low implementation at three months after the enhanced CTC process, but the highest level of implementation of change is evident at the 7 month follow-up of session five.

QUALITATIVE RESULTS

Follow-up questionnaires included an open-ended question which asked participants to report barriers to implementation. Barriers to implementation were analyzed using descriptive statistics and qualitative content analysis. Barriers to change were accounted for within four categories: lack of time, program influences including lack of resources, lack of collaboration or cooperation from required partnerships, and student-related influences. Of these, the largest percentage of responses (35.7% at 3 months and 55.9% at 7 months) related to time. Teacher commentary clearly speaks to the pervasiveness of this barrier: "Monthly follow-up is difficult for the teachers to keep up with all other demands." Participant comments also spoke to the impact of student resistance to change: "Students have the expectation of completing the GED tests and do not want to take time for setting other goals," and "Some of my students do not wish to become computer literate."

DISCUSSION

Differences in implementation between the first and fifth sessions may result from a number of influences, including participant's goal orientation toward the TTI experience, nature of changes, and nature of barriers. Table 1 reported an increase of low implementation in sessions five and six. However, strong evidence of positive movement is reported as percentages decrease from the three month to seven month follow-ups, until the seven month follow-up for session five reported stronger reports of the highest level of implementation-41.7% as compared with 27.2% after the same period following session one. This slow approach with strong outcome suggests that participants spent more time thinking through their needs and planning their changes in practice. The consistent movement into higher levels of implementation suggest that participants may have been oriented toward long-term change rather than for quick success. The 45.2% level of 51-75% implementation at three months after session one suggests an orientation toward quick success. The quick start after session one, however, did not follow with continued success. These figures suggest that, overall, the enhanced CTC fostered greater long-term success in terms of change in practice.

Qualitative analysis of the nature of the intended changes identified at session one reflected changes related to content (what they teach) or pedagogy (how they teach) (Dirkx, Blodgett, & Turner, 1994). Participants attempted to incorporate new content into their practices after the 1992-1993 TTI. Changes involving pedagogy were largely an identification of new strategies for teaching math and reading. Session one changes, then, were strongly task-oriented efforts to plug new information into existing teaching-learning transactions.

Sessions five and six were more theoretical in focus. With an umbrella focus on motivation and retention of adult learners, individual topics stressed understanding of underlying concepts which impact ABE learners. Some intended changes still reflect specific actions, such as "Use [presenter's] interview form in [program name] classroom" which are easily measurable and require less effort to attain success. A participant with performance goal orientation would rely on this type of change in practice to measure success. The majority of intended changes from the 1994-1995 TTI reflect mastery-orientation, or learning goals. Changes indicated tend to be lengthy, detailed and require considerable autonomy in the classroom: "Build a greater rapport with my students using many of the techniques taught at this workshop," and "Discover the correlation between attendance and persistence in my program by using ' Patterns and Predictors of Client Attendance' to analyze persistence and non persistence of students."

Barriers to implementation during the first four sessions included seven areas: unstable student population, lack of opportunity to implement specific goal, lack of time, difficulty initiating change, change in duties and responsibilities, lack of resources, and bureaucratic problems (Turner & Dirkx, 1993). Lack of time necessary to make intended changes was the primary barrier to implementation expressed by participants in sessions one and two. Barriers to implementation expressed by sessions five and six participants focus primarily on time limitations, followed by student resistance. Comments regarding failure due to lack of cooperation by supervisors, peers, and agency partnerships were isolated after the enhanced CTC was implemented. This suggests that emphasis placed upon consideration of feasibility, combined with group discussion of changes and visualization of implementation process encouraged participants to examine carefully the feasibility issue. Discussion of past barriers was included in CTC discussion during the TTI increased participants' awareness of the nature of barriers which have influenced lack of successful implementation in past sessions. Such awareness would influence goals and objectives of participants, as well as avoidance of unfeasible expectations for the TTI.

Implications for further application of the enhanced CTC strategy include professional development courses currently available in industry and education. High levels of long-term change in practice as evidenced by this three-year study indicate that the gap can be overcome.

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COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE GAINS FROM NONFORMAL EDUCATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

Kristina M. Boone

ABSTRACT

Media are ubiquitous tools of education and are heavily relied upon in nonformal educational settings, such as outreach, Extension, and cooperative education. However, little study of the effects of nonformal media on learners has been conducted. This study applied findings from media studies involving television, video, and textbooks to a study of the level of cognition and affective change that was exhibited by agricultural Extension clients after they read two Extension publications. Findings of this experiment determined that the treatment groups reading the publications achieved significantly higher levels of cognition than the control group. Also, attitude scores were significantly different in three areas related to water resources, although the attitude shift was not a strong as the resulting gains in cognition. This type of study is important in determining the value of these types of publications and how to best utilize them in the educational process.

INTRODUCTION

Educators use all types of media to supplement or in substitution of face-to-face teaching. While textbooks have been studied, little research has concentrated on publications that are used in nonformal teaching settings, such as those in which outreach, Extension, and cooperative educators find themselves. Yet, these types of educators rely heavily on such media.

Despite widespread use, publications as teaching tools have not been evaluated in terms of achievement of levels of cognition. During the past three decades, research on cognition resulting from media has flourished. However, the vast majority of these media studies focused on television, programmed instruction, audio presentation, computer-assisted instruction, and film, and not on publications (Clark & Salomon, 1987). Also, much of the most recent research has evaluated internal cognitive processing, and not effects on learning (Grabowski, 1988). Comparison of learning effects through different media has been criticized heavily (Clark, 1985; Clark & Salomon, 1987; Grabowski, 1988). One of the criticisms is that media type research has traditionally compared a "new" medium to a "conventional" one. Clark & Salomon (1987) label researchers' attempts to determine the most effective medium through comparison studies as the box-score approach because the studies try to mark the value of a medium with a narrow criteria, and they conclude that media act as simply the vehicles or means for instruction delivery. The value of the media is dependent, therefore, on its instructional content, and its instructional strategies. Stimulus presentation and the resulting learning still is fertile ground for research in media (Clark & Salomon, 1987), particularly in evaluating achievement of broad educational objectives including the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor domains.

If media can be used to teach, then how much learning can occur? Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill & Krathwohl, 1956) was developed as a system for classifying goals of the educational process. The classification provided a language system to facilitate communication concerning testing, measurement, and the evaluation of learning. Much research has questioned the validity of the taxonomy in presenting a hierarchical model of thought (Newcomb & Trefz, 1987). Based on review of these critical studies, Newcomb and Trefz (1987) developed the Newcomb-Trefz Model to assess cognitive level of questions used in examinations and student assignments. The Newcomb-Trefz Model condenses three levels of Bloom's taxonomy into one level and renames the other levels. Figure 1 illustrates the Newcomb-Trefz Model.

Print media, as well as other media types, are important vehicles in education with rural adults, (Hone, 1984). Rural adults are a growing thread in the American fabric, as urbanites migrate to less densely populated areas (Barker, 1985). Rural learners face unique challenges with lower income levels, greater transportation costs, greater percentages of people living in poverty, and fewer years of formal education (Barker, 1985; Helge, 1992).

→ Evaluating
→ Creating
→ Processing
Remembering

Figure 1. Newcomb-Trefz Model of Cognition (Newcomb & Trefz, 1987).

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of the study and subsequent hypotheses tested were:
1) To determine differences in cognition after subjects in the treatment groups read two Extension publications on water resources.
a. Participants in the treatment groups will achieve significantly greater numbers of correct answers on the posttest exams and achieve significantly higher levels of cognition than the control groups.
b. The pretest/posttest treatment group will demonstrate significant gains in overall cognitive scores and scores at each cognitive level when comparing performance from the pretest to that of the posttest. The control pretest/posttest group will not demonstrate significant gains.
2) To determine levels of affective change after exposure to the publications.
Participants in the treatment groups will demonstrate significantly more positive attitudes about water resources in Scioto County than control group members.

METHODOLOGY

This study was an experiment using a Solomon Four-Group design (see Figure 2), which controls all threats to internal validity and the external validity threat of interaction of testing and treatment. Random selection and random assignment to experimental groups controlled other potential threats to external validity.

R	O_1	X	O_2
R	O_3		O_4
R		X	O_5
R			O_6

Figure 2. Solomon Four-Group Experimental Design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963).

Sixty participants for the study were randomly selected from the agriculture clients mailing list of the Ohio State University Extension Scioto County and randomly assigned to experimental groups. The treatment for this study was two, four-page publications describing the surface- and ground-water resources in Scioto County. Members of both treatment groups were asked to read the publications and not to take the posttest until they had done so.

An instrument using multiple-choice items was written to determine hierarchical levels of educational objectives and learning. Descriptors were taken from work by Newcomb and Trefz (1987). A panel of experts from agencies participating in the Ohio Water Resources Educational Project established content validity of the instrument. A panel of experts in instrumentation from The Ohio State University established face validity for the instrument. For reliability, the quantitative instruments were pilot tested with 17 agricultural Extension clients in Richland County, and resulted in a Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient of .60, an acceptable reliability for research at this stage (Nunnally, 1967).

Reliability might have been higher if calculated for each set of questions according to cognitive level, but concern for power deemed more important.

Seven sets of bipolar adjectives were written for concepts of ground- and surface-water resources and aquifers in Scioto County. Six sets of bipolar adjectives were written for the concepts of ground- and surface-water quality in Scioto County. The Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficients for each of these concepts were 0.80, 0.83, 0.85, 0.70, and 0.82 for the areas of ground-water resources, surface-water resources, aquifers, ground-water quality, and surface-water quality, respectively.

Descriptive and inferential statistics were calculated on the data. T-tests for independent groups were used to determine pretest effects by comparing the posttest scores of the pretest/posttest group and posttest-only group. Because pretest effects were determined to be negligible, posttest scores from the pretest/posttest group and posttest-only group could be collapsed. Thus, further comparisons were made between the control and treatment groups using t-tests (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1985).

FINDINGS

The participants in this study were farmers and averaged approximately 25 years in farming and had completed some college, with an average of 12.93 years of formal education. The average age was 49, and 15 participants had wells that supplied water to their homes. The author notes that one participant in the pretest/posttest control group was functionally illiterate. The researcher read the quantitative instrument to the participant both during the pretest and posttest and care was taken to collect this data in an unbiased manner.

Overall on the posttest, the participants answered an average of 60 percent of the questions in the cognitive portion correctly. The treatment group answered 73 percent of the questions correctly, while the control group's mean was 47 percent correct. In the attitude portion, the overall mean was 2.27 on a scale of 1 (positive attitude) to 6 (negative attitude). The treatment group's average score was 2.13, while the control group's mean was 2.41. Tables 1 and 2 present the cognitive data.

In the cognitive portion of the study, treatment groups scored significantly higher than control groups in total cognition and at the cognitive levels of remembering, processing and creating in the Newcomb-Trefz model (Table 1). At cognitive level of evaluating, significant differences were not found among treatment and control groups. Differences at the processing level were greatest, indicating that the publications worked strongest on the processing level. The treatment group also showed its greatest gain from the pretest scores to the posttest scores at the processing level, but gains at each cognitive level were significant (Table 2). The control group, on the other hand, did not score significantly greater at any cognitive level or in total cognition on the posttest than on the pretest.

Through analysis of attitudes of the participants, this study found that all means for both treatment and control groups indicated generally positive attitudes about all attitude areas. Positive attitudes were indicated by mean scores less than 3.5 on a 6 point scale, while negative attitudes were means of greater than 3.5. The treatment groups gave move positive ratings (lower mean scores) for all attitude areas and in total attitude scores. These differences were statistically significant in three areas: surface water, ground-water quality and total attitude (Table 3).

Table 1. Treatment and control group scores at cognitive levels and in total cognition

Cognitive Level	Group	$\bar{X}$	s.d.	Calculated t-values
1 Remembering	Treatment	4.05	1.13	4.36*
	Control	2.43	1.29	
2 Processing	Treatment	3.86	0.83	8.83*
	Control	1.67	0.80	
3 Creating	Treatment	3.18	0.80	3.45*
	Control	2.29	0.90	
4 Evaluating	Treatment	2.09	1.02	-0.01
	Control	2.11	1.18	
Total	Treatment	13.18	2.58	5.87*
	Control	8.48	2.68	

Treatment n = 22 Control n = 21 *p <0.10

Table 2. Gains in posttest scores compared to pretest scores

Cognitive Level	Group	Test	$\bar{X}$	s.d.	Calculated t-value
1 Remembering	Treatment	Pretest	2.20	1.32	4.64*
		Posttest	4.40	0.70	
	Control	Pretest	2.00	1.18	1.17
		Posttest	2.64	1.36	
2 Processing	Treatment	Pretest	1.70	0.82	5.39*
		Posttest	3.80	0.92	
	Control	Pretest	1.91	0.94	0.72
		Posttest	1.64	0.81	
3 Creating	Treatment	Pretest	2.40	1.26	1.99*
		Posttest	3.30	0.68	
	Control	Pretest	2.45	1.04	0.96
		Posttest	2.09	0.70	
4 Evaluating	Treatment	Pretest	1.60	0.52	1.74*
		Posttest	2.30	1.16	
	Control	Pretest	2.27	0.91	0.18
		Posttest	2.36	1.36	
Total	Treatment	Pretest	7.90	2.73	4.99*
		Posttest	13.80	2.57	
	Control	Pretest	8.63	2.38	0.09
		Posttest	8.73	3.04	

Pretest/Posttest Treatment Group n = 10 Pretest/Posttest Control Group n = 11
*p <0.10

Table 3. Treatment and control group scores on attitude scales

Attitude Area	Group	$\bar{X}$	s.d.	Calculated t-value
Ground water	Treatment	2.20	0.69	1.29
	Control	2.46	0.65	
Surface water	Treatment	2.67	1.03	1.61*
	Control	3.10	0.64	
Aquifer	Treatment	2.85	0.52	1.07
	Control	3.03	0.59	
Ground-water quality	Treatment	1.81	0.55	1.65*
	Control	2.14	0.74	
Surface-water quality	Treatment	2.27	1.03	0.99
	Control	2.55	0.78	
Total	Treatment	2.12	0.52	1.90*
	Control	2.41	0.47	

Scale = 1 (strongly positive) to 6 (strongly negative)
Treatment n = 22 Control n = 21
*p>.10

CONCLUSIONS

In this study, the author accepted the hypothesis that stated that those reading the publications would achieve greater numbers of correct scores and achieved higher orders of cognition than those who did not read the publications. The treatment group, however, did not demonstrate significant differences compared to the control group at the evaluating level of cognition. This most difficult cognitive task of evaluation may not be possible through the type of publications used in this study. Also, the author accepts the second hypothesis which stated that treatment group members would demonstrate significant gains in total cognitive score and at each cognitive level. In light of the finding of no significant difference between the treatment and control groups at the evaluating level, the practical significance of gain scores that the evaluating level may be questionable. Attitudes shifts were apparent in this study in certain areas. However, attitudes do not change as quickly as cognition, and these shifts may not be significant.

Undoubtedly more study needs to be conducted with cognition and affective change that results from nonformal educational media. However, this quantitative evidence indicates that clients can learn from Extension publications and can achieve higher levels of cognition from reading these publications. This is the single most significant contribution of this study to literature in Extension. While text is such a ubiquitous part of the teaching/learning environment that its design often is not given consideration in the facilitation of learning (Stewart, 1988), it is an important avenue for a number of reasons. First, print media are prevalent. Even though media continues to advance through new technologies, print media is still used more than any other medium in education. Second, it is relatively inexpensive when compared to other media. Third, it is serving as the basis for other media; for example, as we move to on-line offerings, the basis for those offerings are printed materials. As more information becomes available through on-line offerings, electronic publishing, and the world-wide web, educational institutions should be promoting value-added materials and this added value may be educational quality. Thus, those involved with the writing and production of publications and other media should incorporate elements that enhance the potential for cognitive gains from educational media for nonformal audiences, as well as formal education settings.

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EMPOWERING THE "DIS-ENFRANCHISED" VIA ENHANCED COMMUNITY-BASED MENTORING TECHNIQUES WITHIN EXISTING ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper will be to provide a empowering, culturally competent, adult education-based, program development model, a philosophical context and descriptions of successful programs that aligned with this construct. It is the belief of these authors that the model and the design of the programs provides an opportunity to serve populations of adults normally under or unexposed to adult education programs

INTRODUCTION

When the teacher knows the model, will the student come?

Scholars assert that adults are more disposed to developing and maintaining intellectual relationships, when they lead to and support: common behaviors, understandings and values, foster vision and goal development and sustain a sense of family and/or community, especially if these concepts exist as gaps in their personal or professional life.

These elements represent the "hooks" that are crucial in understanding the adult learner and the programs that are designed to empower them. The successful adults and the programs which serve them often have an "organic and practical understanding" of the following systems: (see model below)institutional, social, cultural, spiritual and psychological.

A Model For Cultural Competence in the Development
of Successful Education Programs for Adults[1]

IDENTIFICATION

		low	Med	HIGH
	Ethnicity			
SYSTEMS	Age			
	Gender			
	Family			
	Vocation/Avocation			
	Spirituality			
	Perceived Disability			

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[1] Adopted from Hill, R.L., et al: Culture in Clinical Medicine. Southern Medical Journal 83:1071-80, 1990

The degree of identification is determined by the perspectives of the student, the educator and the program. The importance is determined by the degree to which the student, teacher and program align or conflict with each of the systems. For example, if a program has a medium identification with ethnicity and the teacher has a high identification with that same ethnicity, then the teacher will have few conflicts with the materials or content of the class. However, when a student with a low identification with that same ethnicity participates in this class, they may experience frustration with the course and the teacher. This explains why some white American students experience discomfort with black and other non-white history courses. These questions are samples of what could be asked of the teacher, program and student to determine the degree of identification.

How connected do you feel to your ethnic group?
How important is this connection to your everyday life?
How important is age and what does it "means" to you?
Are sex and gender roles clearly defined, somewhat defined or not defined at all? How does gender affect your behavior in stressful and non-stressful situations?
How aware are you of your family's influence and to what degree does it affect to your attitudes, beliefs, practices and values?

Which statement most describes you: (a) I am who I am being. (b) I am what I think, feel and experience. (c) I am what I do.
How important is it for you to feel connected to people and to the universe?
Do you feel a sense of connection with humanity and the universe?
How important is spirituality in your life?
How does external and internal limitations affect your ability to complete tasks: none, some, a lot?

When the teacher knows the philosophy, the students may come.

One of the most impressive challenges of the adult educator today is that of recruitment and retention of students. It is clear that the most advanced and up-to-date teaching skills and techniques will not be useful to teachers if there are no students. The focus of the adult educators and programs, then, can be that of empowering adults in a way that they see the worth and value in the adult education experience.

Our field experience suggests adults are drawn to adult education courses by a diversity of needs and interests. Often adults attend courses "to be with their friends" or other influential person. In other words, getting them into the door is a crucial element which can not be overlooked. It is very important to note that these adults may suffer from a sense of disconnection or isolation from the "system" or "the world," but not from their friends. It has been our experience that successful adult education programs have responded to the diverse needs of the students. These needs often go beyond academic needs and include providing parental, emotional, spiritual and psychological support. Many educators are uncomfortable or unequipped to provide these non-academic resources. Educators need to pay attention to what works for students and nurture those elements.

"Also present among first generation college blacks are few students whose behaviors are quite consistent with the norms and expectations operating in the college environment. It is this group of black students that provides a meaningful point of reference for the larger group of black undergraduates. The smaller group of blacks do not differ from the larger group in terms of innate intelligence, nor in terms of demonstrated motivation or ability. Instead, the major differences are: (1) interpersonal skills appropriate for the academic environment; (2) internalization and translation of educational beliefs and values into appropriate behavioral expressions; (3) participation in and development of functional peer and reference groups that are consistent with future personal, academic and professional expectations; and (4) possession of a clear understanding of one's self as a responsible person." (Scott, 1981)

These authors assert that the four behaviors as described above are consistent not just with black students, but are true for adult and basic education's students as well as students in general.

If you build it, they will come.

Elgin Community College currently supports two successful and non-traditional programs for adults and is in the process of creating a third program. These programs include: (a) Head Start GED Program; (b) The World of Work"; and (c) A program which would train baby-sitters on welfare to become licensed in-home child-care providers. The first two programs are described below.

The Headstart Adult Education Class uses a non-traditional approach which is centered on the student, rather than the curriculum. The intention at the beginning of the class was to engender a support group as well as an academic class. The people are more important than the lessons. Adult students bring history and conclusions based on their unique experiences. The students have full lives, families, relationships, and problems outside the classroom. As opposed to the traditional school setting, where the classroom is considered to be "the job," the class does not command the same priority with the students, and rightly so. In practice, this meant that on some days a student's personal problem took precedence over the lesson plan. This meant that some days, according to the traditional education perspective, the staff "didn't get much done." However, from an adult education perspective the students needs were taken care of in ways that allowed students to continue in the class and feel acknowledged thereby accomplishing a major objective.

The class was split into two groups according to skill level. One group was prepared for the GED and the other group was taught basic math and reading skills. The students not only learned the content but they also discovered that they were capable of learning by using some specific educational techniques. In other words the students were being taught *how* to learn.

The World of Work Program was designed to meet the needs of students at their level of competence. This program is comprised of two components. The first component develops office skills and provides computer training. The second component focuses on discussion and practice of the rules, values, behaviors and styles found in the US workplace. In addition, staff and instructors fulfill the mentoring/counseling/parenting function that has been traditionally left out in the development of the students. Information alone, no matter how correct and relevant, is not sufficient for the full realization of the adult learners' potential. Communication has to be created.

The unwritten rules of office politics are usually conveyed to an elite few by a mentor. In this course the instructor serves two roles--boss and teacher--and switches between them as necessary. The students learn and practice workplace rules as keys to understanding why bosses and colleagues act the way they do. Rather than having these rules "forced" upon them, students realize their power to choose the rules they are going to heed. For example, for some corporate giants, the unwritten rules of the game are: (1) be on time; (2) make your boss look good and have a positive attitude while doing it; (3) dress appropriately (as defined by the leadership of the corporation).

This program was successful because there were visible changes in students' appearance, attendance patterns, promptness, responsiveness, cooperation and energy levels. Many of the students were Public Aid recipients, and some had never been gainfully employed. At present many are actively seeking work, education or training, and in some cases all three.

It has been these authors' experience that this process of understanding systems and the development of "target mentoring" within the adult educational experience can be enhanced with the use of a system/identification model which addresses the concept of the learning process and the emotional investment of both the educator and the learner.

When the student is ready, the teacher will come.

This adult educational experience is about the cultural transmission of values and beliefs. The issue has evolved to one of how and who transmits these values. In the past families, churches, neighborhoods and villages were responsible for this. These entities either no longer exist or are able to handle this task. This leaves few options, one being colleges and the adult education programs. As adult programs evolve, educators will recognize the importance of their roles as counselor/mentor/parent/boss within the context of the classroom. It is this approach that perpetuates the values recognized by society. The complex part is that "society" must recognize the people it has isolated.

The one arena where issues of cultural transmissions are clear is in "education" and world of business. White Americans often think individuals are successful due to individual efforts. In reality corporate America as a culture supports white America in their quest for the prize. In Africa it is said that "it takes a whole village to raise a child," and this is also true for white Americans. It takes the leadership of corporate America to raise a leader. In fact, the rules are established to accomplish this. Even though these rules apply to everyone there are three factors that are often overlooked when minorities join the fast track: (1) minorities are often ignorant of the rules; (2) additional rules are created for minorities; and (3) specific cultures dictate that I don't trust the rules set by corporate America.
In short, perhaps we should look to the United Nations which houses a diversity of beliefs, opinions, and values, and clearly operates on a larger collective set of core values. Programs based on core values and the choice of excellence will empower students to successfully understand and balance their lives.

The authors recognize the challenges of embracing these concepts in practical and applicable ways. We share with you a quote which continues to inspire our work:

"Only when something has become problematic do we start to ask questions. Disagreement shakes us out of our slumbers and forces us to see our own point of view through contrast with another person who does not share it. But we resist such confrontations. The history of heresies of all kinds testifies to more that the tendency to break off communication with those who hold different dogmas or opinions; it bears witness to our intolerance of different fundamental structures of experience. We seem to need to share a communal meaning to human existence, to give with others a common sense to the world, to maintain a consensus." (Laing, 1967)

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PLANNING PROGRAMS FOR NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION: INSIGHTS FROM THE CITIZENS SCHOOL IN KAOHSIUNG CITY, TAIWAN

Yu-bi Chang

ABSTRACT

As is the case in many countries, the people of Taiwan believe that continuing education is one way to bring wealth to the nation. With the advocacy of lifelong learning and the growing demand for career advancement, a non-formal educational system -- the Citizens School -- was established by Kaohsiung City Government in Taiwan. The purposes of this study are to examine (1) the program planning processes of participating institutions and organizations, and (2) the instructors' experience in teaching adults in this nonformal educational environment. Findings presented the various planning strategies applied in analyzing the organizational context, in assessing learners' needs, in implementing programs, and in conducting evaluation of programs. Findings also indicated the instructors' recommendations of the competencies for effective teaching of adults. They include: (1) using adult learners' experiences as teaching resources, (2) understanding how adults learn, and (3) building a pleasant learning atmosphere with good communication skills. Findings also include the factors and suggested solutions for the problem of attrition. Further research is needed to determine learners' motivation for participating in nonformal education and their evaluation of the effectiveness of the Citizens School programs.

INTRODUCTION

Adult and continuing educational programs have been vigorously implemented and widely advocated in Taiwan. This field's growth can be evidenced by the establishment of professional associations in adult education, the granting of government funds, the proliferation of adult education publications, the recognition of Open University degrees, and the provision of graduate studies in adult education (Huang, 1993). Adult and continuing education programs take place in various settings and reflect diverse planning approaches. The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyze various planning approaches employed by program planners of adult and continuing education programs in a particular setting -- the Citizens School in Kaohsiung City, a system in which institutions and organizations jointly participate to offer continuing education programs for the public. A general picture delineating the processes of program planning among participating institutions and organizations will be presented. It is proposed that the insights reported in this paper, gleaned from the experience of practitioners involved with the Citizens School, can contribute to a better grounding of professional practice, and result in more effective program planning in the field of adult and continuing education.

Background of the Citizens School

The Citizens School is physically not a real "school," but an organized system which uses the resources, including school facilities and faculties, of institutions and learning organizations already in existence in Kaohsiung City. The City Government allocates funding to all participating institutions and organizations according to the number of courses they offer to the Citizens School. The rationale for establishing the Citizens School was to provide people in the city with quality continuing education programs.

The Citizens School comprises a variety of institutions and organizations. Institutions include both public and private schools ranging from junior high schools to universities. Organizations include learning societies (such as the Classical Languages Consortium, and the Urban Studies Society), associations (such as the International Women's Association, and the Consumers Association), non-formal educational agents (such as the Information and Computer Institute, and the Language Study Center), and other social education organizations (such as the Chinese Symphony Orchestra, and the Social Education Division under the City Bureau of Education). Institutions and organizations independently plan the courses they offer to the Citizens School. Courses and programs provided by institutions are on a semester basis and fall into the following four major categories: computer courses, language courses, applied programs (such as mechanics, business, and home making), and arts and leisure (The Citizens School Registration Brochure, 1990 to 1994). One vocational high school, which also offers courses for the Citizens School, serves as the central administration unit. This school is responsible for publicity and promotion, general registration, and certification for all courses under the Citizens School system.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature pertinent to the theories of program planning is reviewed in this study in order to provide a foundation for exploring the program planning processes in the Citizens School. An understanding of the guiding principles and steps of program planning theories in adult education can help us look at the ways institutions and organizations implement their courses in the Citizens School. An analysis of models and components of program planning will also provide an overview of different perceptions and emphasis in connection with the planning processes.

Overview of Program Planning Models

Various program planning models have been constructed to improve the effectiveness of planning and the quality of programs in adult education. Sork and Busky (1986) found that there was a lack of cross-referencing of models in the literature of program planning in adult and continuing education and an absence of cumulative development of the models. They suggested that building a collection of skills from these models is necessary for creative and effective planning. This overview describes several planning models in the field and is necessary to provide a comprehensive understanding of strategies adopted in various types of adult learning contexts. Planning models presented in this study include: the TOP model -- Targeting Outcomes of Programs by Bennet and Rockwell (1994), the LEPP model -- Lifelong Education Program Planning by Cookson (1995), the SAM model -- Systems Approach Model by Murk and Galbraith (1986), and the six steps of program planning process by Sork and Cafferella (1986). This part of the literature review will discuss these models and the underlying principles of those models.

Bennet and Rockwell's (1994) model, Targeting Outcomes of Programs (TOP), is an integrated approach to planning and evaluating program by targeting outcomes and tracking the extent to which outcomes are achieved. The major steps in this model follows the sequence of: (1) *envisioning social, economic, and environmental conditions* (SEEC); (2) *proposing necessary knowledge, opinions, skills, and aspiration* (KOSA) for achieving the practice; (3) *proposing reactions* of participants to the programs; (4) *postulating participation*; (5) *designing activities* to achieve program objective; and (6) *locating resources* to implement the program(s).

Cookson's LEPP model, Lifelong Education Program Planning (LEPP), is proposed to "describe the reality and to orient the planning actions in specific program instances" (Cookson, 1995, 5:1). Program planners need to be conscious about the interrelating components during the planning processes, yet, it is not necessary to approach programming in a linear fashion. This model is an example of non-linear program planning which allows for flexibility in the planning processes. The four primary components in the LEPP model are: (1) exercising professional responsibility, (2) engaging relevant context, (3) designing the program, and (4) managing administrative aspects. This model includes a comprehensive outline of aspects and considerations for planning programs in adult education. Program planners need to be attentive to each of the detailed components, and reflect on and examine their programs in light of the essential considerations proposed in this model.

Several planning models emphasize a systematic approach for planning, as opposed to a linear and sequential practice. Murk and Galbraith's Systems Approach Model (SAM) is another example of a non-linear programming model. The SAM model has four components in a systems approach: (1) needs assessment, (2) instructional planning and development, (3) administration and budget development, and (4) program implementation and evaluation procedures. Murk and Galbraith noted that any of the four components may be called for depending on the need of programs and that evaluation occurs throughout the planning process. Planners using this model are not constrained to conduct programs step by step.

Designed to help understand the complex decision making of planning processes, Sork and Cafferella's model of six basic elements for program planning is proposed to "identify controversial or contentious issues related to each of the major phases or steps of planning, and to point out areas in which there remain substantial gaps between what theorists say should be done and what practitioners do" (Sork and Cafferella, 1989). These six steps are: (1) analyze planning context and client systems, (2) assess needs, (3) develop program objectives, (4) formulate instructional plan, (5) formulate administrative plan, and (6) design a program evaluation plan. These six steps for program planning identified by Sork and Cafferella are derived from an analysis of various assumptions about the considerations for planning programs.

As there are many different beliefs regarding the planning processes, a comparison of the various assumptions may provide helpful insights for selecting the appropriate program planning approaches in a given situation. In the planning of various adult education programs, the major components constituting the planning processes are: analysis of the planning context and client system(s), assessment of needs, development of program objectives, design of an instructional plan, creation and execution of a budget and administrative plan, and design of a program evaluation plan (Bennet and Rockwell 1994; Boyle, 1981; Caffarella, 1994; Cookson, 1994; Murk and Galbraith, 1986; Sork and Buskey, 1986; Sork and Caffarella, 1989). Most program planning theories and models in adult and continuing education suggested that planning is a complex and dynamic interplay of decision making, as opposed to a step-by-step deductive ordering. It is the comprehension of all elements and considerations necessary for achieving a responsive program that contributes to a successful outcome for both planners and learners.

In addition to the programming phases for adult and continuing education, the types of programs categorized by Boyle (1981) provided considerations for planning approaches. The three types of programs are: developmental, institutional, and informational programs. Boyle (1981) stressed the importance of distinguishing between the different types of programs by stating that, "Understanding the different types of programs is significant because the type of program and its goals have implications for the nature and design of the learning opportunities to be provided, the resources necessary to achieve the goals, and the role of the programmer in the program process" (Boyle, 1981, p. 8).

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to obtain information, from the point of view of the program planners, regarding how courses or programs are developed in their institutions and organizations for the

Citizens School. A qualitative approach for obtaining detailed information was selected. An open-ended and structured interview was conducted with every interviewee. This format for collecting data enabled the discussion of perceptions, meanings, and interpretation by directors and instructors. Selected for interviews were twelve directors who represented organizations and institutions of different educational levels. Among those twelve directors, five of them also teach in the Citizens School courses in their institutions. Two sets of questions were prepared. The first set, for all directors, consisted of common steps and elements suggested in the program planning theories. Topics of questions included: organizational context, needs assessment of programs, implementation and evaluation of courses. The second set, for directors who also teach in the Citizens School, was designed to gain insight into their experiences as teachers of adult learners. Topics included: the experiences the instructors faced in teaching adults learners (both satisfaction and challenges), and perception about the ideal adult educator.

Information obtained from interviews was first sorted according the questions proposed by this researcher. Themes that emerged during the interviews were noted and organized into additional categories for reporting. While reviewing records of the interviews, codes addressing the content were noted in the margins and later placed in an initial list of codes. By sorting the research questions proposed by the author and the list of codes under each question, main and sub-categories were constructed for reporting. Content analysis was used to categorize data.

FINDINGS

Findings in this study are presented in eight categories according to questions that originated in the literature review and the themes that emerged in the process of analyzing the data. The first four categories that correspond to the topics addressed in the interviews are: (1) organizational context of programs, (2) needs assessment of programs, (3) implementation of programs, and (4) evaluation of programs. The next two categories which emerged in the data analysis that related to planning programs: (5) attrition, and (6) in-service training and professional development. The last two categories, obtained from the directors who are also instructors of their Citizens School courses, are related to the teaching of adults: (7) experience of teaching adult learners, and (8) recommendations for teaching adults.

In the first category, organizational context of programs, both internal and external factors are identified in the organizational contexts. Internal factors include assigning responsibility to particular units within participating institutions and organizations, considering available facilities and instructors, deciding types of programs to offer to the system, and weighting the results of participation in the system. External factors include the influence of low tuition policy, funding from the government, coordination of the central administration system, and adherence to a general semester format. These external factors impact greatly on the ways programs are presented to the Citizens School. In the second category, needs assessment of programs are reported as follows: surveying the willingness of departments to offer courses within the institutions for the Citizens School, using findings in previous needs assessment research, using previous attendance to determine topics of courses, generating new courses by client requests, and consulting with previous participants.

In the third category, implementation of programs, the use of instructional plans specifically for Citizens School courses was not found to be a common component in the planning processes due to the informal nature of courses. Many instructors used existing instructional plans from their regular classes or continuing education classes. However, several instructors commented that because students in the Citizen School are a different population compared to traditional students or students in other continuing education programs, they may need to revise the content of the courses. In the fourth category, conducting evaluation of programs, most directors reported that the criteria for evaluating courses in Citizens School comprised the numbers of students who attended and who completed the courses. Some also used test results and students' performance to evaluate their programs. One director of continuing education in a language college suggested that a self evaluation method would be feasible as well. One unique method used by the director of a private organization, which provides educational programs for women, involved observation by a staff member of the students' interaction with the instructor. As a formative evaluation of their programs, this organization also uses their own questionnaires after each class, to find out students' opinions and suggestions for the organization's improvement.

In the fifth category, the problem of attrition, it was found that most directors interviewed have encountered attrition problem in their institutions in varying degrees. They suggested several possible factors related to attrition as: (1) student's inability to keep up with the lessons, (2) the different educational background of students in the same class, (3) time management problems of the learners due to other responsibilities, (4) inappropriate teaching methods for adult learners, (5) students' doubts about the value of certificates from the Citizens School, and (6) lack of strong motivation. Several methods were suggested by the interviewees to reduce attrition. Almost everyone agreed that building classroom cohesiveness would be the best way to retain students. Selecting a class representative who can act as a "bridge member" to help bring the class members together would help build a good classroom atmosphere. Activities could also be designed to help students to get acquainted with each other so that they could encourage each other and share their learning experiences. One organization has volunteers to conduct in-class orientation activities. Another director suggested that a system should be designed to identify a student's level of education and to set a standard for registration of courses.

In the sixth category, in-service training for professional development, several interviewees considered such training of professional development for administrators and instructors in the Citizens School as an important way to improve their programs in the Citizens School. Most interviewees preferred a workshop or a seminar type of training which would emphasize the practical aspects of planning and teaching, as opposed to theoretically oriented lectures. One director noted that designing a training manual for "trouble-shooting" might be a good idea. A director who preferred not to have training suggested that training manuals could replace workshops or seminars. However, another affirmed that workshops should be an experience exchange and should not be replaced by a training manual. Several directors stated that it was important for instructors to understand the strategies of teaching adult learners. Workshops can provide information for instructors about ways of assessing learners' needs and managing students with diverse backgrounds. Some directors who favored voluntary training stated that it does not make sense to require everyone to attend such training because some instructors are flexible when teaching any kind of students. They felt that attending workshops is more necessary for those who do not have much experience in teaching.

In the seventh category pertaining to instructors' experiences of teaching adult learners, instructors interviewed reported that they enjoyed teaching adult learners, but there were times when they felt frustrated. Instructors stated that most adult learners were self-directed and that many of them have a strong motivation and willingness to learn. It is a very rewarding experience to teach adult learners. Interviewees also explained why and when they felt frustrated. Due to the busy working schedules of many adult learners, students were often late for class and missed assignments. This problem is not easy to manage and could eventually contribute to attrition. Several instructors pointed out that one of the challenges of teaching adults was that many learners came to the Citizens School with the attitude that learning is a leisure time activity. It often seemed that it was more important to provide adult learners with a pleasant learning atmosphere, rather than to require them to perform certain tasks. A language instructor stated that teaching in the Citizens School could be a challenge to instructors when students could not devote sufficient time and effort to meet course requirements. For the last research questions, directors who also teach in the Citizens School courses provided recommendations for the effective teaching of adults. These recommendations are: using adult learners' experience as teaching resources, understanding the way adults learn, and building a pleasant learning atmosphere with good communication skills.

CONCLUSION

This study has delineated the program planning processes employed by the institutions and organizations involved in the Citizens School, an organized system which promotes lifelong learning for the public in Kaohsiung, Taiwan. Instructors' experience in teaching adult learners and recommendations made for effective teaching were also explored. Findings illustrated the various aspects of the planning processes reported by participating institutions and organizations in the Citizens School, i.e., the organizational context, needs assessment of programs, implementation of programs, and evaluation of programs. The problem of attrition and the solutions recommended by directors were also reported. Suggestions for coordination for programs and professional development needed for achieving better programming and planning of courses were also reported. Further research can focus on learners' motivation for their participation in the Citizens School courses. This information can enhance the effectiveness and responsiveness of teaching and planning for the continuing education of adults.

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PLANNING ADULT BASIC EDUCATION WITHIN A LIFELONG EDUCATION FRAMEWORK: INSIGHTS FROM TAIWAN

Yau-Jane Chen

ABSTRACT

This paper proposes a lifelong education framework by which Taiwanese adult basic education may be examined. The author first of all briefly articulates the notion of lifelong learning; differentiates between lifelong learning and lifelong education and between adult learning and adult education; and interprets the relationships among lifelong learning, lifelong education, literacy, and adult basic education in Taiwan. The concern of adult basic education practice is then specifically examined, reviewing the past efforts to reform ABE, illustrating the current status of ABE, and analyzing the future trends and intended implementation of ABE. Finally, based on the lifelong education framework, an alternative approach to planning ABE is presented in the form of ten recommendations.

INTRODUCTION

The history of the provision of adult basic education of Taiwan goes back about one-half century. Since the 1980s, Taiwan's adult basic education has been challenged by the problems and issues similar to those faced by the United States' literacy education in the early 1970s. In the 1990s, the decade of international literacy, adult basic education in Taiwan has become target for major reform.

This paper examines Taiwan's adult basic education programs within a lifelong education framework. Emphasis is given to the following parts:

- Implications of lifelong learning, lifelong education, literacy, and adult basic education as well as the relationships among these concepts;
- Past efforts to reform, the current practice, and future trends and intended implementation of adult basic education;
- An alternative approach to planning adult basic education within a lifelong education framework in the form of ten specific recommendations.

LIFELONG LEARNING, LIFELONG EDUCATION, LITERACY, AND ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

LIFELONG LEARNING AND LIFELONG EDUCATION

Lifelong learning is the framework within which adult education needs to be understood, but it is not limited to the adult world. It embraces childhood, youth and adulthood, and should embrace all learning environments and learning opportunities (i.e., home, work, school, media, etc.) (Quiroz, 1994). The concept of lifelong education has been regarded as a dynamic, guiding principle of educational reform throughout the world since the 1970s. It embodies the notion that all individuals ought to have a variety of opportunities for systematic instruction, study, and learning throughout their lives. The practices and trends of an integrated system of education in the framework of lifelong education have to be that lifelong education is for all -- for all age and gender categories, for socially isolated groups, for all occupational groups, for all lifelong needs, and for continual development. There are four key elements of lifelong learning: horizontal integration, vertical integration, lifelong learners, and a lifelong learning curriculum (Yang, 1994).

According to Quiroz (1994), there is a need to differentiate between lifelong education and lifelong learning (and adult learning and adult education). Learning occurs even in the absence of a systematic education process, outside schools and formal education settings. It is essential to recognize emphasize and at the same time, differentiate the various learning environments and opportunities as well as the importance of revising conventional classifications such as those of formal, non-formal and informal education, which no longer belong to well-defined educational realities. Rather, they contribute to artificially separate what is actually an educational continuum.

LITERACY AND ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Literacy is the foundation of lifelong learning. Definitions of literacy vary widely, historically, and culturally. In today's society, reading and writing are not the only intellectual skills required for an adult. According to Chung (1994), the definition of adult literacy including reading, writing, and verbal communication in a particular language as well as ability in math and problem-solving skills, is accepted by most of scholarly literature and literacy providers.

One of the most prevalent forms of adult literacy provision in the majority of developed or semi-developed countries is referred to adult basic education (ABE). Such programs address the needs of adults who lack sufficient mastery of basic education skills to enable them to function effectively in society. Adults who enroll in ABE often lack basic skills to speak, read, or write the specific language spoken by people who live in that society.

CONCERN OF ABE PRACTICE IN TAIWAN

In Taiwan, ABE is expected to deliver the basic knowledge and skills that enable adults to function effectively in a modern society. So is compulsory education that comprises six years of elementary education and three years of junior high education. ABE is institutionalized as the provision of supplementary education, the equivalent content of elementary and junior high education, to adults who need it.

CURRENT STATUS, PROBLEMS AND ISSUES OF ABE

Legitimacy

According to the Constitution Article 160, citizens who are past school-leaving age with less then nine years of schooling are required to participate in supplementary education that is subsidiary to the formal educational system. Additionally, the third Article of Supplementary Education Act and the second Article of the Primary Education Act address the same regulation. These rules address the mandatory characteristic of ABE. Although providing the legal foundation for implementation of ABE programs, they may cause the whole ABE system to be institutionally weak and fragmented. The elementary and junior high school professionals conduct ABE programs drawing on the same perspectives as that of undertaking compulsory education designed for six-to fifteen-year-old students.

Providers and participants

Taiwanese adult basic education is primarily undertaken in primary and secondary schools that are incorporated in the formal primary and secondary school system. According to Chen (1994) and the Education Statistics of the Republic of China (Ministry of Education, 1994), in the 1993-4 academic year, shown as table 1, 290 elementary schools, 215 junior high schools, and 1,813 ABE classes located in 1044 civil organizations such as schools, community centers, or temples, offered equivalent supplementary education to 94,594 adults who did not complete elementary and junior high school in their childhood.

Table 1. Numbers of ABE providers, classes, and participants in Taiwan in 1994

Provider	Elementary supplementary school	Junior high supplementary school	ABE class	Total
No. of schools	290	215	1,044	505
No. of classes	844	847	1,813	3,504
No. of participants	24,975	26,083	43,536	94,594

Curriculum and course schedule

The ABE programs offered by elementary supplementary schools are scheduled for 12 hours in three evenings weekly and consist of seven subjects. Additionally, the ABE programs offered by junior high supplementary schools are scheduled Monday through Saturday and comprise thirteen subjects including required and selected courses. The courses and weekly teaching hours of both programs are shown in Table 2.

ABE materials and teaching methods

Using the metaphors identified by Morgan (1986), as "The system as machine," the organizations sponsoring adult basic education programs can be characterized as efficient ongoing operational systems in which adults read the ABE materials that are exactly the same as the textbooks designed for 6 to 15-year-olds, interact with the part-time educators who work full-time as elementary and junior high school teachers, and use the facilities designed for children. Not only are the literacy materials for adults the same as those used for children, but the teachers use the same methods, approaches and instructional techniques with adults as they do with school children. According to Huang (1986), in 1979 the ABE Program Planning Team for Taipei Elementary Supplementary Education revised the previous textbooks used by ABE program by adding some content according to the teachers' actual teaching experience and the participants' recommendation.

Table 2. Courses and weekly teaching hours in elementary and junior high ABE program

	Programs and levels				
	Elementary supplementary program		Junior high supplementary program		
			Grade		
Subject	Basic	Advanced	1	2	3
Mandarin	7	5			
Chinese			5-6	5	5
English			2-3	4	(4)*
Mathematics	3	3	3-4	4	(4)*
Social Studies	1	1			
Natural Science		1			
Biology			3		
Physics & Chemistry				4	(4)*
Earth Science					2
Civics & Ethics		1	1	1	1
Health Education			2		
History			2	2	1
Geography			2	2	1
Physical Education or Music	1	1	1	1	1
Physical Education					(3)*
Group Activities			1	1	1
Planting Agricultural Products					(2-3)*
Marine Products					(2-3)*
Other selected courses					(2-3)*
Subtotal required	12	12	24	24	12
selected	0	0	0	0	12
Total	12	12	24	24	24

Source: Huang (1992), Elementary & junior high supplementary course standards, Ministry of Education

* Asterisks denote numbers of selected courses

Professional qualification and training

Almost all of the ABE educators are part-time professionals. They have full-time jobs as principals, teachers, or staff in elementary or junior high schools. According to Chen (1994), in 1994, there were only eight full-time instructors in 290 elementary supplementary schools that included 844 ABE classes, and 34 in 847 ABE classes in 215 junior high supplementary schools. The lack of professional training of ABE teachers in terms of adult learning has led many adult learners to drop out before achieving their goals and it is likely that many more adults are dissuaded from participating at all.

Educational expenditure

The Constitution Article 160, the third Article of Supplementary Education Act, and the second Article of the Primary Education Act not only mandate that supplementary education to be provided mandatory, but also indicate that it is free. ABE programs are governmentally sponsored by municipality/county/city Bureau of Education, the Taiwan Provincial Department of Education, and the Ministry of Education. Due to the shortage of governmental fund, in 1993-4 academic year, the educational expenditure on each ABE participant was only sixty-five dollars and merely ten dollars for the part-time instructor's subsidy per hour. As a result, elementary and junior high school teachers are not interested in participating in ABE programs.

Research

Four research projects were funded by Department of Social Education, Ministry of Education, 1993-4: "The goals and function of Taiwan's primary supplementary education" (Huang, 1993), "The investigation of the current status of the primary supplementary education practice" (Wu, 1993), "A study on adult literacy" (Huang, 1994), and "Literacy standard and literacy vocabulary" (Huang, 1994). These projects have contributed to the implementation of ABE. The fourth study serves as an important tool for identifying illiterates and evaluating the effectiveness of adult literacy. However, the research on ABE effectiveness and evaluation has yet to be conducted.

PAST EFFORTS TO REFORM

Up to the early 90s, efforts to reform ABE in Taiwan have been limited, focusing primarily on increasing the educational budget and learning opportunities for adults. For example, the number of schools offering ABE classes has increased from 151 in 1983 to 505 ten years later. However, although the numbers of providers in 1993 were 3.3 times more than those in the early 1980s, only 94,594 adults, or 1.7% of the population who need to take ABE courses, actually participated (see Table 3). According to the Ministry of Education in Taiwan in 1991, approximately 5.49 million people 15 years of age and older adults, nearly one fourth of the population of the country, needed to take ABE courses. That included 1.38 million adults who were illiterate adults and 4.11 million adults who had dropped out of elementary or secondary school (Ministry of Education, 1991). Although there has been an expansion in the number of programs for these adults, merely to increase the number of programs will probably not significantly address the problems and issues explained above.

Adult education as a whole has not been strongly emphasized and sponsored by the Taiwan government until the 1990s. Many efforts have been made by the central and local educational administrative institutes, the Ministry of Education and municipality/county/city Bureau of Education, and adult education professionals such as adult education professors and administrators. Those efforts include offering adult learning workshops to ABE instructors to promote more comprehensive perspectives regarding ABE, more understanding of adult learning, and more effective instructional strategies. In addition, planning new curriculum for adults that meets adults' learning needs, developing new instructional materials that more motivate participants, establishing a database of elementary and junior high dropouts, recruiting participants for ABE programs, conducting more studies of ABE practice, and improving the evaluation for ABE.

Table 3. Current participants/target participants ratio for ABE in Taiwan in 1994 (in thousands)

	Current ABE participants			Target ABE participants	
	Elementary ABE program participants	**Junior high ABE program participants**	**ABE class participants**	**Elementary school graduates & dropouts**	**Illiterates**
No.	25	26	44	4,110	1,380
Total	95			5,490	
Population			22,000		
Target ABE participants/ population ratio			**25%**		
Current/target ratio for ABE participants			**1.7%**		

FUTURE TRENDS AND INTENDED IMPLEMENTATION

The efforts listed above will be continued in order to improve the quality of ABE programs. Additionally, quantitative expansion will be emphasized simultaneously. By the 21st century the Ministry of Education intends to increase the numbers of elementary and junior high supplementary schools to 7,455 with 22,365 ABE classes to serve 1,006,425 adults. It will cost 34.7 million to achieve this objective. The ultimate goal is to entirely eliminate illiteracy.

LIFELONG EDUCATION APPROACH TO ABE

Perhaps a more appropriate metaphor than "The system as machine" for an adult education provider would be that of a "learning organization." Lifelong education, as a conceptual framework for adult education practice, suggests specific ways in which existing ABE programs may be transformed from "systems as machines" to "learning organizations," more responsive to the actual needs of Taiwanese adults.

Mere quantitative expansion of ABE would not address the needs of under-educated Taiwanese adults. Qualitative changes that incorporate principles of lifelong education are also needed. Guided by the framework of lifelong education, such changes would include such ideas as education for all, education for lifelong needs, and education for continual development. According to Cookson's (1995) Lifelong Education Program Planning Model (the LEPP Model), the following efforts should be emphasized to the provision of ABE:

- Management/administrative considerations -- public awareness, program promotion and marketing, learner recruitment and retention, determining financial responsibility, instructor training, and staff development and training
- Recognition of relevant contexts influencing the process of program planning -- assessment of learners' needs and stakeholders' interests, prioritization of needs, identification participants' characteristics, and gathering community support
- Identification of program planners' professional responsibilities -- planners' roles, philosophy, and ethical responsibilities
- Program design -- setting goals, selection of instructional methods and materials, determination of learning procedures, and planning process and outcome evaluation.

In the light of the concept of lifelong education framework as understood in the 90s and the status quo of ABE in Taiwan, it is recommended that improvements in ABE could be accomplished by:

- Defining literacy standard within systems thinking
- Providing ABE program to meet the needs of lifelong learning
- Expanding the provision of ABE

- Legislating government-funded ABE
- Involvement of business and community support for ABE practice
- Involvement of professionals in ABE program design
- Applications of distance learning and educational technology to ABE instruction and learning
- Empowerment of ABE facilitators to conduct action research
- Marketing and recruiting for ABE
- Assessment and evaluation methods of ABE

CONCLUSION

In sum, a review of past efforts to improve ABE and examination of the current status of ABE provide insight to areas of practice. Additionally, lifelong education principles suggest an approach to reconstructing the provision of ABE in Taiwan. This approach could contribute to policy-making and implementation of more effective ABE throughout the country. Systematic application of lifelong education principles to ABE in Taiwan would not only enable reconstruction of current policies and provision, but also of the knowledge base of adult education in general.

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CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAM ADMINISTRATION: A STUDY OF COMPETENT PERFORMANCE INDICATORS

Peter S. Cookson and John English

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to identify the competencies associated with continuing education administration work as revealed by the areas of responsibility and, for those areas of responsibility, specific representative tasks. Data were gathered regarding the nature of the two continuing education administrative roles of *continuing education area representative* and *director of continuing education* in the 22 campus-wide Pennsylvania State University Commonwealth Education System. Focus groups were convened for each of these positions to engage in a DACUM process. This information was then processed by the researchers in iterative consultations with various panels of exemplary performers. The resultant 13 areas of responsibility and 156 task statements for the area representative position and 10 areas of responsibility and 123 task statements for the director of continuing education position were then entered into a "Professional Development Self-Assessment" instrument for each of the two positions.

INTRODUCTION

As continuing education becomes increasingly central to the mission of higher education, the competence of continuing educators becomes a more important concern for both individual continuing educators and institutions that offer continuing education programs. Despite activities designed to improve the practice of continuing educators, many of these activities produce less than the desired results. These activities are often effective because they fail to link the learning needs of continuing educators to the practice context of continuing education.

Those who study the practice of continuing education administration have shown an increasing interest in clarifying and defining the role of continuing educators. Drawing on their extensive experience in the field, a number of continuing educators (Knox, 1982; Strother and Klus, 1982; Freedman, 1987) have identified competencies or traits required for successful practice. Information about the demographic characteristics, career patterns, and work preferences have also been collected through large-scale profession-wide surveys (National University Continuing Education Association, 1987, 1990). Descriptions of the work of continuing educators and their priorities have been developed using both surveys and practice observation (Donaldson, 1993). Functional domains and practice specifications have been generated using modified role delineation techniques (English, 1992). Lists of proficiencies and job descriptions for specific continuing education positions have been developed (Knox, 1979: 1987) and a self-assessment tool has been designed to assess the general performance level of members of the field has been constructed (Knox, 1987; Landis, 1995).

While these efforts do much to clarify the field of continuing education practice, little effort has been undertaken to help continuing educators link the competencies required for successful practice to the actual practice situation. Such a linkage could stem from several related trends associated with research into professional competence, the need for learning in the context of professional practice (Willis and Dubin, 1990; Queeney and Smutz, 1990), and new models for the development of effective continuing professional education (Queeney and Smutz, 1990).

THE PROBLEM

Without an empirical and observable basis to differentiate more effective from less effective continuing education administration practice, individual self-assessment activities, in-service training activities, and performance appraisal activities may be established using overly subjective and unstable estimations of performance effectiveness. A practice-referenced approach is needed if measures for assessing the status of current performance are to be valid and if standards are to be set to guide improvements in professional competence.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The two purposes for conducting this study are (1) to identify the areas of responsibility and tasks associated with the administration of continuing education programs and (2) to develop a performance-based self-assessment tool which can be used by individual continuing education administrators to (a) evaluate their own professional competence and (b) guide the planning of their own corresponding professional development activities. While applicable to the entire field of continuing education practice, this study specifically focuses upon the conduct of continuing education administration within the context of the field service of continuing education administrators at Penn State.

METHOD

The study used a five-phase methodology to construct behaviorally anchored rating scales (BARS) for both the area representative and director of continuing education positions These scales can be used by continuing educators to self-identify their own level of performance effectiveness in the practice of continuing education administration. This methodology is based upon techniques used by Smith and Kendall (1963), Harari and Zedeck (1973), Fogli, Hulm, and Blood (1971), Umbrecht (1984), Farr, Dubin, et al. (1980), and Brown (1990). BARS have been developed for assessing performance in a variety of different settings including: college teaching, engineering, hotel management, assorted clerical positions related to office management, and the Cooperative Extension Service.

METHOD

Qualitative research methodologies were used as the primary data collection tools. Relying on small population samples to provide a rich source of information, we elicited information on the perspectives of those being studied relative to the specific areas of responsibility and tasks connected with their continuing education positions rather than on broad generalizations applicable to all possible situations connected to their work. The specific procedures used in this study, associated with the BARS (behaviorally anchored rating scales) and DACUM (Develop a Curriculum) methodologies (Mitchell, 1983), emphasize the competence of those participating in the process. Both procedures rely upon the capacity of exemplary incumbents with established records of performance to describe their jobs.

In the DACUM process, exemplary incumbents identify broad areas of responsibility and outline the tasks associated with their jobs. The tasks and areas of responsibilities generated through the DACUM process formed the foundation for the subsequent initial phase of BARS construction when incumbents were called upon to provide examples of tasks at different levels of performance effectiveness.

Two pools of exemplary continuing education practitioners from within the field services staff attached to individual Penn State branch campuses were identified by senior-level continuing education managers. One pool consisted of exemplary area representatives. The other consisted of exemplary directors of continuing education. Members of the focus groups and subsequent respondent teams were drawn from these groups.

THE BEHAVIORALLY ANCHORED RATING SCALES

To develop the behaviorally anchored rating scales, the research was divided into five phases:

Phase 1: Identification of Performance Dimensions. Two focus groups of individuals, identified as exemplary continuing education practitioners from within the field services staff attached to individual Penn State branch campuses, were conducted to develop position descriptions for each of the positions being examined. One group comprised area representatives; the other comprised campus-based directors of continuing education. Each focus group used the round-robin techniques associated with the DACUM (Develop a Curriculum) process to construct these descriptions. After identifying clusters of related tasks, participants were asked to come up with names for each of the clusters of related items. After all the clusters were named, participants were asked to attach labels to these *areas of responsibility* and to contribute any additional items not previously identified. They were then asked to generate statements that were representative of *highly effective*, *adequate*, and *highly ineffective performance* for each task.

By the time both the original group and subsequently contacted groups of exemplary performers had evaluated, refined, and added to the list of tasks, the DACUM process yielded 13 areas of responsibility for the area representative position and 10 areas of practice for the director of continuing education position. For the area representative position these were: budgeting, marketing and promotion, staff management, client management, programming, professional development, communication skills, office management skills, internal relations, external relations, student relations, program support, and faculty relations. For the director of continuing education position these were: financial resource management, external relationships, internal relationships, leadership management, human resources development, programming, administration and organization, personal and professional development, marketing, and customer/student services.

Phase 2: Generation of Behavioral Examples. In the second phase of the day-long focus group session, the continuing educators generated a range of behavioral statements representing examples of effective performance associated with the areas of responsibilities and tasks for each of the positions examined. In addition to the representative tasks identified by the two focus groups, additional exemplary performers were subsequently invited by mail to contribute yet other tasks.

Phase 3: Retranslation and Allocation of Behavioral Examples. Statements generated and reviewed in phase 2, representing different levels of performance for each of the positions were stripped from their original area of responsibility classification, assigned a random identification number, and printed on cards. Participants were asked to put each card representing each task in the manila envelope that corresponded to the appropriate area of responsibility. The researchers tallied the assignment of the items. If 70 percent of the group members correctly assigned the statement to its original classification, the item was retained in its original classification. The researchers examined each of these items and how they were rated to determine whether to keep the item as is, rewrite it, discard the item completely, or reassign it to a new classification. At the conclusion of this process, the researchers grouped the items into triads of tasks made up of three related items representing the range of effective performance from highly ineffective to highly effective performance. There was a total of 156 tasks for area representatives and 123 for directors of continuing education.

Phase 4: Scaling Process. The original focus group members were asked to evaluate the triads made up of complementary behavioral statements with their original effectiveness level classification removed. The results of this analysis indicated an undesirable degree of ambiguity in the assignment of items to the levels of highly effective and adequate performance. Consequently, in the subsequent phase of scale development, the task triads, representing the varying levels of performance effectiveness, were replaced on the scales by single items representing highly effective performance.

Phase 5: Selection and Placement of Behavioral Anchors on the Scale. Because the judges' ratings of the task triads indicated a significant number of triad tasks were ambiguously assigned to a particular level of effectiveness, the researchers decided to draw only one behavioral statement per triad on the final scale. All of the retained items, most of which had been originally assigned to the highly effective level of performance, were subsumed under their respective areas of responsibility. Collectively, the tasks retained for the behaviorally anchored rating scales represent highly effective continuing education administrator performance. They thus represent a bench mark against which comparisons may be made. When placed next to a nine point scale similar to one devised by Dubin (1990), the resulting combination constituted a behaviorally anchored scale. Scales for all areas of responsibility were grouped together to form comprehensive self-assessment instruments for both the area representative and director of continuing education positions.

THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT ASSESSMENT INSTRUMENT

With the behaviorally anchored scales for area representatives and director of continuing education positions completed, the researchers proceeded to assemble a "Professional Development Assessment" for both positions. The instrument consists of the following three sections: (1) Professional Competence Self-Rating Scales, (2) Inventory of Professional Development Resources and Strategies, and (3) A Professional Development Action Plan. The intent is that continuing education administrators will use Section 1 to identify areas of strength as well as areas in which they would like to enhance their competence. Section 2 consists of a brief overview of various resources and strategies for professional development for continuing education administrators and provides a worksheet on which the area representatives and directors of continuing education may indicate the resources and strategies available to them. Section 3 explains the nature of a Professional Development Action Plan and provides a form on which the continuing education administrators can plan specific professional development activities. The appendix of the Professional Development Assessment contains a list of helpful references that relate to different aspects of continuing education administration. These may be consulted in connection with other possible resources and strategies.

CONCLUSIONS

The most significant outcome of this study has been the development of behaviorally anchored rating scales that embody the tasks and duties associated with continuing education administration. These scales, relating to the duties of the Penn State field staff administrative positions of area representative and directors of continuing education, have been systematically and empirically derived on the basis of: (1) participation in the entire process of a variety of individuals knowledgeable about the particular job; and (2) performance behaviors that are clearly defined, measurable, and observable. These behavioral statements differentiate not only performance but also the level of effectiveness of that performance. They can serve as useful tools for self-evaluation, appraisal of learning needs for in service training and career development, and input for the design of graduate courses relating to continuing education practice.

In the process of developing these scales, we reached the inescapable conclusion that the roles of continuing education administrators – both area representatives and directions of continuing education -- are extremely complex. The areas of responsibility each comprise numerous and varied tasks. Although in the focus groups, we attempted to make an exhaustive list of tasks, we are sure there is variation from campus to campus. That is why we labeled the tasks "representative tasks." Some tasks bespeak unique competencies; others share with related tasks perhaps more general and underlying sets of competencies. Many of the competencies are so specific to the continuing education setting it is doubtful they could have been acquired until after the continuing education administrators' entry into their field of work. Hence the importance of provision for area representatives and directors of continuing education to increase their professional competence in a variety of ways. Although the most commonly such competence is attained through on-the-job, such experience almost certainly needs to be supplemented and supported by professional development activities. Some of those activities may be initiated by the employing institution; others by the individual.

DISCUSSION

In light of the conclusions reached, the researchers identified several sets of implications. Some of these implications concern the need for further research; others concern the implications for professional development of continuing education administrators at Penn State and, to the extent the findings apply to other institutions, perhaps to the broader field of continuing education at large.

Implications for Further Research

The behaviorally anchored scales developed in this study comprise tasks representative of highly effective performance of specific areas of responsibility. In their present form, continuing education administrators are expected to self-assign numerical indicators that correspond to their own degree of professional effectiveness on each area of responsibility. Each set of representative tasks on the behaviorally anchored rating scales in this study correspond to highly effective performance. To further refine the scales, sets of representative tasks corresponding to "adequate performance" and "highly ineffective performance" could be added. The evaluation of the last panel of judges relative to the task triads for both positions could serve as a starting point to identify those triads where placement along the spectrum of performance effectiveness was problematic. Ambiguous items thus identified could be replaced by more appropriate items. The revised triads could then be presented for scrutiny to another panel of judges. When 70% or more of the judges agree on the proper and differential placement of each statement in the triads, the overall scale for both positions could then include statements at all three levels, instead of the single level (highly effective) as at present.

The many assumptions that undergird the present study suggest important empirical questions of importance not only to Penn State, but also to the entire field of continuing education administration:

1. Are area representatives and directors of continuing education willing to compare themselves on the scales of effectiveness with the highly effective representative tasks listed for each area of responsibility?

2. Can self-ratings on each area of responsibility facilitate the setting of priorities for self-directed professional development?

3. Do continuing education administrators find it meaningful to complete a written inventory of professional development resources and strategies?

4. Do continuing education administrators find it meaningful to complete a Professional Development Action Plan?

5. Does involvement with the Professional Development Self-Assessment enhance involvement in professional development activities?

6. Do such activities result in enhanced professional competence?

7. Does enhanced professional competence result in more effective continuing education activities of Penn State in general and at the campus in particular where such administrators are assigned?

Obviously, before the Professional Development Assessment is offered as a viable tool to Penn State continuing education administrators, it should be field tested so that appropriate revisions may be made prior to adoption. In our view, the questions above are of importance not only to the continuing education operations at Penn State, but perhaps also elsewhere in other higher education institutions.

Implications for Practice

Following a large scale application of the Professional Development Assessment for continuing education administrators at Penn State, the resulting information could be pooled to comprise a picture of the system-wide professional development needs as perceived by continuing education administrators. Such information would enable those who are responsible for planning institutionally sponsored and permitted professional development activities select relevant topics and themes of greatest importance to of the field staff administrators.

Perhaps one reason why few individuals enter this field of work with any academic preparation for their work is that so few higher education institutions offer graduate studies in this area. Yet the information on areas of responsibility and representative tasks provided by the two sets of behaviorally anchored scales could serve as valuable input for the design of one or more graduate level courses relating to continuing education practice. The information generated in the process of conducting the DACUM and BARS procedures does suggest items for a content outline for graduate level courses that would address not only the professional development needs of current continuing education administrators, but also the preservice training needs of individuals yet to enter this field of work.

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NON-PARTICIPATION OF NURSES IN SPONSORED CONTINUING PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION: AN EMPIRICAL TEST OF THE ISSTAL MODEL

Peter S. Cookson, Judith P. Lawrence, and David L. Passmore

ABSTRACT

This paper summarizes the findings of an empirical test of an interdisciplinary predictive model of social participation to examine the problem of non-participation in continuing professional education (CPE). Questionnaires were mailed to 500 nurses randomly selected out of the population of 2,600 employed by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare, all of whom were eligible for release time and up to $1,500 in reimbursement to attend CPE activities of their choice. Some 81% responded. Questions were designed to elicit information as to why, in any given year, only 15% of the population participated in CPE. Information was elicited on six classes of independent variables: external context, social background, personality, attitudes, retained information, and situational factors. Using logistic regression analysis, the researchers calculated the probability for each variable that respondents would tend not to participate. Findings suggest various intervention strategies to decrease non-participation in CPE by the nurses surveyed and suggest possibly useful strategies for increasing participation in CPE by members of other professional groups.

INTRODUCTION

Much of the literature on participation in both adult education in general and in continuing professional education (CPE) lists costs and lack of time as two of the most frequently identified deterrents to participation in CPE programs. Yet these two factors are not as critical for nurses whose employers are prepared, often through contractual agreement, to provide time off work and to pay the costs associated with participation in organized CPE programs. Even when such factors are addressed, however, the rate of non-participation can be high. In Pennsylvania, for example, despite the fact registered nurses were entitled by contractual agreement to $1,500 and four paid educational leave days from work each year to participate in sponsored CPE activities, in 1988-89, only 15% were reported to have participated in any form of sponsored CPE and only 3% were reported to have participated in college courses.

The purpose of this study was to identify those factors that predisposed or influenced the decisions of one group of professionals not to participate in CPE. A secondary purpose was to conduct an empirical test of a theoretical predictive model of participation, referred to in the literature as the ISSTAL (interdisciplinary, sequential specificity, life-span time allocation) model originally proposed by Smith (1980) and subsequently adapted and applied to the phenomenon of adult education participation by Cookson (1986).

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

As with participation, a multiplicity of interacting factors contributing to nonparticipation have been identified in the literature. Several studies focused on barriers or deterrents to participation (Cross, 1981; Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982; Scanlan and Darkenwald, 1984; Darkenwald and Valentine, 1985). Johnstone and Rivera (1965) and almost 10 years later, Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs (1974) identified reasons for nonparticipation in adult education. Constraints of costs and time have been among the most frequently reported deterrents to participation.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Although the literature identifies several models that address the broader realm of participation and nonparticipation in adult education (Boshier, 1973; Cross, 1981; Darkenwald and Merriam, 1982) none were associated with factors that explain nonparticipation in continuing professional education. The model that appears to encompass many of the interdisciplinary factors identified in the literature was

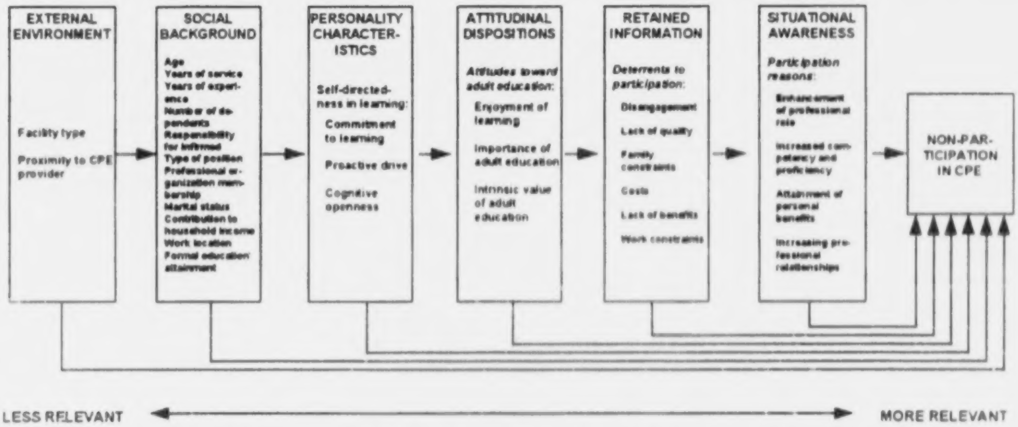
EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT
Facility type
Proximity to CPE provider
SOCIAL BACKGROUND
Age
Years of service
Years of experience
Number of dependents
Responsibility for infirmed
Type of position
Professional organization membership
Marital status
Contribution to household income
Work location
Formal education attainment
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS
Self-directedness in learning:
Commitment to learning
Proactive drive
Cognitive openness
ATTITUDINAL DISPOSITIONS
Attitudes toward adult education:
Enjoyment of learning
Importance of adult education
Intrinsic value of adult education
RETAINED INFORMATION
Deterrents to participation:
Disengagement
Lack of quality
Family constraints
Costs
Lack of benefits
Work constraints
SITUATIONAL AWARENESS
Participation reasons:
Enhancement of professional role
Increased competency and proficiency
Attainment of personal benefits
Increasing professional relationships
NON-PARTICIPATION IN CPE
LESS RELEVANT
MORE RELEVANT

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework Adapted from ISSTAL Model (Smith, 1980; Cookson, 1986)

a multidimensional predictive model posited by Smith (1980). His "interdisciplinary, sequential specificity, time allocation, lifespan model" was developed to explain a wide spectrum of social participation activities. The model has been adapted by Cookson (1986) to place in context the plethora of previous studies and theoretical explanations of adult education participation, viewed here as the converse of non-participation. Simply stated, the model postulates individual discretionary behavior as the result of a complex of interacting independent variables categorized into six classes. In order of less to greater specificity, these are: external context, social background, personality, attitudinal dispositions, retained information, and definition of the situation. Besides the causal ordering implied by the model, participation is assumed to exhibit both diachronic and synchronic covariation. Diachronic covariation is exemplified by a pattern of participation -- or non-participation -- which is maintained across the lifespan. Synchronic covariation is exemplified by similar patterns of participation -- or non-participation -- across a wide span of current activities.

The variable classes named by Smith (1980) and the specific variables whose posited influence the phenomenon of non-participation was examined in this study are shown in Figure 1. Revealing the full names of the variables, Table 1 illustrates one of the serious difficulties faced by researchers bent on avoiding the reductionism that characterizes so much of the research on adult education participation. To include so many variables in one instrument is to place what many respondents and prospective respondents perceive to be an inordinate demand on their patience. (Nevertheless, we were able to include each of the variables listed in a questionnaire approximately 10 pages in length.)

Smith (1980) originally proposed the interdisciplinary, sequential-specificity, time-allocation, lifespan (ISSTAL) model to explain the phenomenon of social participation. Recognizing its potential for the field of adult education, Cookson (1986) subsequently adapted the model to serve as an organizing framework for the theory and research on adult education participation. Despite the interest it has received over the years (Cafarella and Merriam, 1991; Courtney, 1992), the interdisciplinary complexity of the ISSTAL model that required simultaneous gathering of data and complex statistical analyses on large numbers of variables has dissuaded adult education researchers from applying the model to participation research. This the requirement to gather massive amounts of data remained beyond the reach of participation researchers to date

This study focuses on the interdisciplinary, sequential-specificity interactivity of the six classes of independent variables hypothesized to predict non-participation. Linear causality along a continuum of relevance is assumed to exist. Therefore, the further to the left of the diagram a variable appears on the continuum of relevance the more likely its effect would be mediated by subsequent variables. Conversely, the further to the right on the continuum, the more situationally specific its influence (Cookson, 1986) on nonparticipation in CPE.

TABLE 1. ISSTAL CLASSES OF VARIABLES AND THEIR RESPECTIVE INSTRUMENTATION FOR STUDY OF NON-PARTICIPATION IN CPE OF PENNSYLVANIA NURSES

Class of Variable	Specific Variables	Instrumentation
External Context Factors	Type of facility	Questionnaire item
	Accessibility of institutions of higher education	Questionnaire item
Social Background Factors	Years of state service	Questionnaire item
	Years of experience	Questionnaire item
	Type of position	Questionnaire item
	Professional organization membership	Questionnaire item
	Work location	Questionnaire item
	Formal education attainment	Questionnaire item
	Income	Questionnaire item
	Number of dependents	Questionnaire item
	Responsibility for aged or inform dependents	Questionnaire item
Personality characteristics	Self-directedness in continuing learning Commitment to learning Proactive drive Cognitive openness	Oddi Continuing Learning Inventory
Attitudinal dispositions	Adult attitude toward continuing education Enjoyment of learning Importance of adult education Intrinsic value of adult education	Darkenwald and Hayes: Adult Attitude toward Continuing Education Scale
Retained Information Factors	Deterrents to participation Disengagement Lack of quality Family constraints Costs Lack of benefits Work constraints	Scanlan and Darkenwald Deterrent to Participation Scale
Situational Factors	Reasons for participation in CPE Enhancement of professional role Increased competency and proficiency Attainment of personal benefits Increasing professional relationships	Grotelueschen Participation Reasons Scale
Dependent Variable	Non-participation in CPE	Questionnaire item

SAMPLE AND DATA COLLECTION

The sample was randomly selected from a total universe of approximately 2,600 nurses who were permanently employed by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Department of Public Welfare (Mental Health Hospitals, Mental Retardation Centers, State General Hospitals, Youth Development Centers), during fiscal year July 1, 1988, to June 30, 1989. From a comprehensive list of all registered nurses working within a nursing classification, as defined by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Civil Service Commission classification system, two lists were assembled: list 1 comprised nonparticipants (n=250) in CPE; list 2 comprised participants (n=250) in CPE. Of the identified participants, three duplicate names were discovered, thus reducing the number of participants in the sample (n=247). Of the two patient care coordinators in the sample, one was identified as not being a nurse which further reduced the number of participants (n=246).

To collect information on the six classes of variables, a questionnaire comprised of the previously described instruments and a cover letter explaining the project was distributed by mail to the those nurses identified in the sample at their place of employment. The mail survey procedure outlined by Dillman (1978) was followed. A return rate of 81.4% was realized.

METHOD

As a result of this multiplicity of interdisciplinary factors posited in the theoretical framework, no single instrument could be identified in the literature to support an interdisciplinary investigation. One or more instruments were selected to represent each of the six classes of independent variables. These are listed in Table 1. The objective of this inquiry was to determine if significant relationships existed between the variables as posited by the adapted ISSTAL model. Differences in nonparticipation associated with the significant variable were analyzed. Logistic regression analysis was identified as the most suitable method to determine this information. To provide a broader range of comparison between nonparticipation and participation, a flexible level of significance ($p<.25$) was selected for this analysis. The significance of the relationship between the independent variables and nonparticipation in CPE was calculated by using the Chi Square model and the level of significance.

FINDINGS

Logistic regression analyses permitted distinctions to be made as to the likelihood that respondents who scored high on each of the independent variables listed in Table 1 would not participate in CPE. In abbreviated form, the findings are presented in the sequence in which they were posited to exist within the framework of the ISSTAL model.

External context factors. In this class of factors, only proximity of higher education institutions (p=.015) was shown to have a significant (p=.015) relationship with the dependent variable of nonparticipation in CPE. Nurses located more than 28 miles from institutions of higher education were found to be 30% more likely to be nonparticipants in CPE than those whose work locations were at a lesser distance.

Social background factors. Several significant relationships were found among this class of variables: age (p=.032) (the incidence of nonparticipation was no greater among older nurses than the younger nurses), formal education attainment (p=.021) (nonparticipation was found to be 18% less likely for nurses with baccalaureate degrees than nurses with less than a baccalaureate degree but no significant relationship was found for nurses with graduate degrees and nonparticipation and CPE), job classification (p=.035) (nurses who held supervisory or managerial positions were 13% more likely to be nonparticipants than nurses who held staff nurse positions), years of state service (p=.065) (nurses with zero to four years of service were 22% more likely to be nonparticipants than nurses with five or more years), and number of professional associations of membership (p=.05) (respondents with memberships in seven or more organizations were found to be 17% less likely to be nonparticipants than those who belonged to fewer than seven).

Personality characteristics. Two of the three factors identified by Oddi (1986) as comprising the personality trait of self-directedness in learning were not shown to be significantly related to nonparticipation. Commitment to learning for the sake of learning was shown to be significant (p=.009). Nurses with the highest level of commitment were found to be 19% less likely to be nonparticipants than respondents who did not express a high level of commitment.

Attitudinal dispositions. All three factors identified by Darkenwald and Hayes (1988) as comprising adult attitudes toward adult education were found to be significantly related to nonparticipation in CPE: enjoyment of learning (p=.001) (nurses who reported greater enjoyment of learning were found to be

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27% less likely to be nonparticipants than nurses who expressed less enjoyment of learning; nurses with greater intrinsic value of adult education (*p*=.0006) were 23% less likely to be nonparticipants than nurses who reported to have less intrinsic value of adult education; nurses reporting the highest intrinsic value of adult education were 23% more likely than those with less favorable views to be nonparticipants in CPE.

Retained information. All six factors comprising Scanlan and Darkenwald's (1984) Deterrent to Participation Scale that represented this class of variables were found to be significantly related to nonparticipation in CPE: nurses with greater disengagement (*p*=.004) were found to be 20% more likely to be nonparticipants than nurses who expressed lesser disengagement, respondents who perceived lack of quality in CPE activities (*p*=.118) were found to be 12% less likely to be nonparticipants than nurses who did not view lack of quality as great a deterrent, nurses with greater perception of the lack of benefits for attending CPE activities (*p*=.005) were found to be 23% more likely to be nonparticipants. Similarly, nurses with greater perceptions of work constraints (*p*=.135) as a deterrent were 15% more likely to be nonparticipants than nurses without such perceptions. Those respondents who perceived costs (*p*=.172) as a greater deterrent were 15% more likely to be nonparticipants than those who did not share this perception.

Situational factors. This most proximal class of variables, posited to have the greatest influence on nonparticipation, was measured by the Participation Reasons Scale (PRS) developed by Grotelueschen (1985). The data were subjected to the Harris-Kaiser method of data analysis. As a result of oblique rotation analysis, four factors were identified: enhancement of professional role, increase in competence and proficiency, attainment of personal advantages, and increase in professional relationships. Three of these four factors were shown to be significantly related to nonparticipation. Nurses who indicated greater value for increased competence (*p*=.0001) were 33% less likely to be nonparticipants than nurses who expressed less value for increasing their competence. Nurses with greater desire to attain personal advantages (*p*=.131) were 16% less likely to be nonparticipants. Respondents with a greater desire to expand their professional relationships (*p*=.015) were also less likely to be nonparticipants.

CONCLUSIONS

With respect to the value of the ISSTAL model, the findings of this study allow three conclusions to be drawn: (1) a multiplicity of interdisciplinary factors has been found to be significantly related to nonparticipation in sponsored continuing professional education activities. (2) Synchronic covariation posited to exist by Cookson (1986) between participation and other types of socially valued discretionary activities was manifest in this study. (3) As a framework for explaining registered nurses' nonparticipation in CPE, the ISSTAL model offered a comprehensive structure for examining the direction of the relationship between a multiplicity of interdisciplinary variables and the decision not to participate in CPE. As a result of its not being a complete theory, however, the ISSTAL model did not demonstrate proximity. These conclusions will be explained in detail in the final paper.

APPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS TO PRACTICE

As an element of practical significance for CPE providers, employers, and professional organizations, the findings of this study suggest various intervention strategies to decrease the probability on nonparticipation in CPE by registered nurses. To reduce the issue of accessibility to institutions of higher education, CPE providers, professional nursing organizations, and employers may want to consider the possibility of offering sponsored CPE activities at the work site of registered nurses. Motivational incentives should be encouraged. Emphasis should be placed on those incentives which focus on registered nurses' intrinsic reasons for participation. Recognition systems should be established for nurses who actively participate in CPE. Attempts should be made by CPE providers, professional nursing organizations, and employers to reduce or eliminate deterrents to participation. Employers may want to examine the work-related environment to identify the existence of deterrents and reduce those that are within their control, for example, inflexible work schedules.

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THE LEPP MODEL: A NEW APPROACH TO PLANNING ADULT EDUCATION PROGRAMS

Peter S. Cookson

ABSTRACT

In their recent challenge to the field to reconceptualize program planning as an inherently political process whereby program planners negotiate among needs and interests of varied and sometimes competing stakeholders, Cervero and Wilson (1994) have rendered incomplete all of the conventional program planning models that have been described in the adult education literature since Tyler (1949) first proposed his ideas about systematic curriculum design. This paper is a response to their challenge. Proposed is a "lifelong education program planning" model that incorporates not only features of what might be referred to as "mainstream" and "alternative" program planning models, but also the revisionist perspectives advanced by Cervero and Wilson. The four components of the LEPP model, *exercising professional responsibility*, *engaging relevant contexts*, *designing the program*, and *managing administrative aspects*, together with their respective sub-components, are described.

INTRODUCTION

A major concern for the field of adult education is how practitioners may benefit from adult education theories on program planning. Cervero and Wilson (1994) have categorized the various theoretical contributions as (1) *classical models*, (2) *naturalistic models*, and (3) *critical models*. Classical models draw from Tyler's (1949) instructional planning approach to prescribe what, in the view of their respective authors, should be. Naturalistic models attempt to describe what actually happens. Critical models, on the other hand, focus on the inequitable balances of power between those who mandate, plan, and participate in educational programs. Most classical and naturalistic models comprise the following steps or stages: (1) inputs of a learning needs assessment, (2) process directed to those needs, (3) outcome that represents the learned behavior, and (4) feedback in the form of an evaluation that proves the information necessary to repeat the programming cycle. Wilson and Cervero (1994) have challenged the completeness of all three types. Classical and naturalistic models are incomplete in that they fail to consider program planning as a political process in which planners must negotiate with different sets of stakeholders pertinent to any given program. Critical models are strong on analysis of such things as imbalances of power relations, but weak on realistic applications for practice. Although Cervero and Wilson discuss what is missing in the extant models, they stop short of describing an updated (*revisionist*) model of their own. Yet, if practitioners are to be assisted in their program planning activities by the literature of the field, clearly the range of options described in the literature must not only bring together the best thinking on the subject of program planning models, but also the significant critical insights of Cervero and Wilson (1994).

GENESIS OF AN ALTERNATIVE RESPONSE

The idea for this model emerged when I had the opportunity in 1992 to teach a course on program planning for educators and trainers of adults at the Universidad Nacional de Ingeniería in Managua, Nicaragua. In the absence of a suitable text written in Spanish, I decided to write my own. In writing the chapters on program planning models, I divided various models into "prototypical" and "alternative" models. I sought to glean from the models reviewed -- even those devised for singular practice contexts such as business and industry or continuing medical education -- insights that could be applied generally across the wide spectrum of adult education practice. It became obvious that while many models offered unique contributions, no one model possessed a monopoly of insights. On the basis of my comparison, I was able to outline what at first I called a "comprehensive and synthetic" program planning model.

Although most of the prototypical and alternative models from which my model were derived from the adult education literature of North America, I eschewed the term *adult education* due to the confusion associated with that term. In both Latin America and North America, the term conjures up in the mind of uninformed audiences the erroneous image that our field corresponds to adult literacy, adult basic education, and/or other programming for the economically, politically, and socially unempowered while causing to be overlooked such activities as continuing professional education, training, human resource development, agricultural extension, continuing higher education, distance education, and other activities similarly situated on the full adult education spectrum. To avoid such confusion, I decided to use for part of the model's label the term *lifelong education* -- not no much in the sense of a master concept as envisioned by UNESCO more than two decades ago but, rather, as a term to refer to the totality of organized forms of education and training for people who have taken on the social roles of men and women.

I subsequently translated into English the description of the comprehensive and synthetic program model that I first described in Spanish and used it in my courses on program planning. Through my discussions with students who attempted to apply the model to their own practice settings, I periodically modified the model. But not until I became acquainted with Cervero and Wilson's book, *Planning responsibly for adult education*, however, did I undertake a major revision.

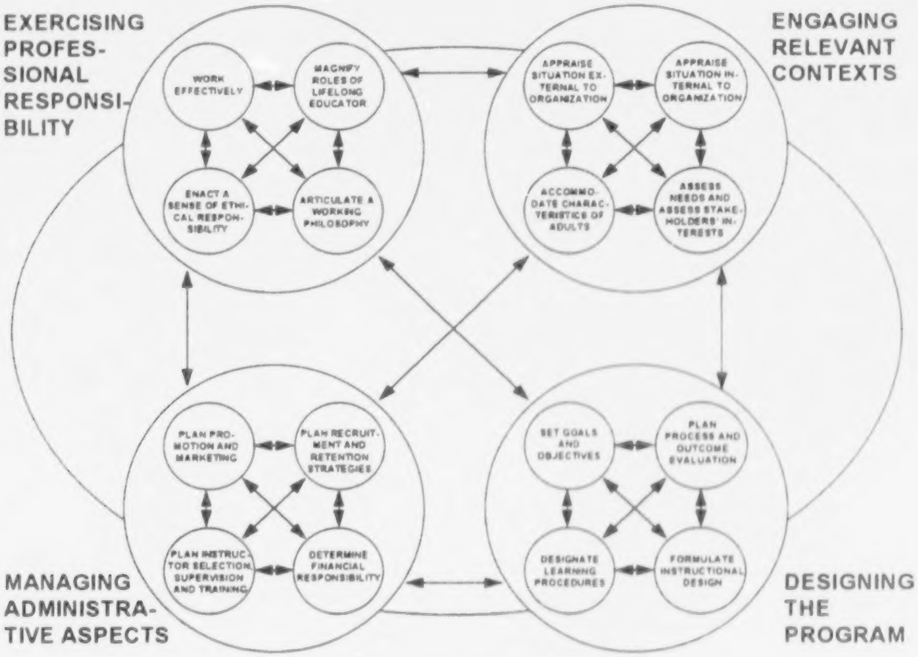
EXERCISING PROFES- SIONAL RESPONSI- BILITY
WORK EFFECTIVELY
MAGNIFY ROLES OF LIFELONG EDUCATOR
ENACT A SENSE OF ETHI- CAL RESPON- SIBILITY
ARTICULATE A WORKING PHILOSOPHY
ENGAGING RELEVANT CONTEXTS
APPRAISE SITUATION EX- TERNAL TO ORGANIZATION
APPRAISE SITUATION IN- TERNAL TO ORGANIZATION
ACCOMMO- DATE CHARAC- TERISTICS OF ADULTS
ASSESS NEEDS AND ASSESS STAKE- HOLDERS' IN- TERESTS
PLAN PRO- MOTION AND MARKETING
PLAN RECRUIT- MENT AND RETENTION STRATEGIES
PLAN INSTRUC- TOR SELECTION, SUPERVISION AND TRAINING
DETERMINE FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY
MANAGING ADMINISTRA- TIVE ASPECTS
SET GOALS AND OBJECTIVES
PLAN PROCESS AND OUTCOME EVALUATION
DESIGNATE LEARNING PROCEDURES
FORMULATE INSTRUCTIONAL DESIGN
DESIGNING THE PROGRAM

Figure 1. The Lifelong Education Program Planning (LEPP) Model

THE LIFELONG EDUCATION PROGRAM PLANNING (LEPP) MODEL

The resulting program planning model, the lifelong education program planning model (LEPP), shown in Figure 1, includes the following components: (1) exercising professional responsibility, (2) engaging relevant contexts, (3) designing the program, and (4) managing administrative aspects. The two-headed arrows in Figure 1 signify not only a high degree of theoretical interrelatedness but also a high degree of integration. The patterns of influence among the four sets of factors are seen as reciprocal and continuous. Although possible to discuss each component in isolation, in actual practice all components and their sub-components interpenetrate. As was true of the "Systems Orientation Model of Murk and Galbraith (1986), the LEPP provides for multiple entry points and divergent sequences.

EXERCISING PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITY

Because planners relate to participants as entities responsible and capable of continuous improvement through learning, not only in the work setting, there must be place for transcendental values that go beyond the technical exigencies of the sponsoring organizations, objectives of any given training or education program, technological aspects of instruction-learning, and even the expectations of superior officers to whom planners report and the focused interests of program participants. This cluster of sub-factors focuses on the need for planners, *before* settling on the task of any given planning activity, to first orient themselves to different aspects of their program planning work. The four sub-components for this component are described below.

Work Effectively. Underlying this entire scheme is the assumption that program planners, as actors in their respective organizations can work effectively. That is, they are able to perform proficiently, in a timely manner, and in a way that contributes to harmonious relationships with others. Some would argue that this subcomponent should be regarded as antecedent to any steps or elements that comprise a program planning model. My justification for its inclusion is that the entire model may be used as a bench march against which comparisons between one's own or others' performance may be made.

Magnify Roles of the Lifelong Educator. The term *role* refers to more than the duties outlined in a job description, Rather, it refers to areas of responsibility and functions or tasks performed by planners who have formed a self-concept of themselves as professionals. The verb *magnify* signifies an effort on the part of planners to develop and master their multiple roles. To implement such roles, planners need not only to be knowledgeable about the many facets of their work, but also to reflect upon and critically examine the often unquestioned assumptions that underlie their practice. Planners who magnify their lifelong education roles subscribe to high standards of personal and professional conduct and are committed to continuous and lifelong improvement of their talents and skills in the service of others. Although they value monetary rewards, they seek such additional rewards as advancement toward excellence in their relations with other people and their organization. Instead of relying on superiors to mark out their responsibilities and rules governing the provision of training and education, they ensure programs are supportive of both the sponsoring organization and program participants. They engage in efforts to orient their organizational superiors to whom they report about the what, why, and the how of introducing changes and innovations that otherwise would not be introduced. At the same time, they seek to advance the cause of lifelong education beyond their own organizational sphere.

Articulate a Working Philosophy of Lifelong Education. Obviously a *working philosophy* is related to one's sense of *ethical responsibility*. However, for purposes of the discussion they are here treated separately. The term *working philosophy* was first coined by Apps (1973) to refer to one's system of beliefs with respect to several dimensions of her practice. It involves the conscious, critical consideration and questioning of the assumptions and beliefs that underlie the practice of lifelong education. In contrast to so-called *scientific* and *rational* procedures carried out to implement specific program ideas, one's working philosophy can provide answers to such questions as: (1) *Who*, *why*, *what*, *how*, and *who is responsible?* (2) Where can a lifelong educator turn for solutions to problems arising from practice? (3) What are the relationships between one's lifelong education practice and broader societal issues? (4) What is the nature of knowledge? Of education? Of lifelong education in the organization or in society? (5) How does the practice of lifelong education practice relate to the broader questions about the meaning of one's life? (6) Should lifelong educators share a common identity as *professionals*? (7) What constitutes *professional practice*? What does it mean to be a *professional* lifelong educator?

Enact a Sense of Ethical Responsibility. Cervero and Wilson (1994) have demonstrated the fallacy of regarding the planning of training and education programs as an apolitical activity. An even more basic assertion is that the program planning processes cannot be amoral -- it deals with the rightness of the planner's practice. Behind every planning decision and action there are not only beliefs, but also a constellations of values. Sometimes training and education activities involve competing and even conflicting values. These values can often go unrecognized. Unless lifelong educators think reflectively about their ethical responsibility to plan *responsibly*, represent interests of learners and other stakeholders *democratically*, and negotiate *responsibly*, it is unlikely they will be prepared to assume anything other than a passive stance within the network of relationships involved with program planning.

ENGAGING RELEVANT CONTEXTS

If their programs are to be successful, program planners must engage the contexts that are relevant to their work. In the LEPP model, such contexts include: the context external to the sponsoring organization, conditions internal to the sponsoring organization, characteristics of adults as learners, and the specific interests and needs of the learners and other sets of actors with a stake in the programs being planned. Designation of these subcomponents is consonant with Cervero and Wilson's (1994) central thesis: "that planning programs is a social activity in which people negotiate personal and organizational interests" (p. 4).

Appraise the Situation External to the Sponsoring Organization. In this era of vast movements back and forth of people, goods, and ideas within the world community, the time has long since passed that an organization can afford to ignore the conditions external to its own immediate sphere of activity. Conditions, relations and policies outside the organization frequently find their echo in the conditions, relations, and policies within the organization. That which occurs within the external context can affect directly and indirectly the conditions related to training and education. If planners are to assume a proactive rather than a reactive stance, they must make the effort to comprehend such *external conditions* as demographic, economic, cultural, political phenomena that impact on the organizational sponsor. They must be aware of the current configuration of competitive, cooperative, and collaborative institutions and organizations with which their own organizations share the landscape.

Appraise the Conditions Internal to the Sponsoring Organization. It is an inescapable fact that the conditions internal to the organization directly and indirectly impact the program planning process. Cervero and Wilson (1993) have described the planning process as a political process whereby planners negotiate with others in the organization with respect to competing interests to accomplish the goals of training or education. The formal administrative structure represented by the table of organization as well as the patterns of exercise of power reinforced by the culture and the informal social organization significantly determine the definition of what is appropriate and possible with respect to different forms of lifelong education. Such power relationships must be accounted for in the appraisal of the internal situation. So also must the policies, purposes, goals, objectives, restrictions, and problems that an organization faces that can encourage and retard the carrying out of effective training and education programs (Goldstein, 1971).

Accommodate Characteristics of Adults. Naturally enough, if the planner fails to take into consideration the characteristics of those who are to participate in the education or training programs, as adult learners, it is unlikely that the objectives for the training or education will be realized. There are physical, psychological and mental characteristics that participants have in common with most adults. There are other characteristics that arise from their national, regional, local cultural and ethnic backgrounds, as well as their geographical origins and residence. There are yet other characteristics particular to the individuals and groups of participants in a given situation. In designing programs, the careful planner will want to take into account the pertinent characteristics of those who are to participate in them.

Assess Needs and Negotiate Stakeholders' Interests. In the lifetime of both individuals and organizations, events and conditions frequently arise that require changes in the ways of thinking, feeling, or acting. Some circumstances may be defined as undesirable situations to be eliminated or ameliorated. Other circumstances may be thought of as constituting a desirable state toward which a person or organization should aspire. But not all problem situations constitute learning needs. Education or training may not be the most appropriate response. To resolve, lessen, or eliminate certain undesirable conditions, or to replace them with more desirable conditions, there can be a variety of responses among which training and education represents only one. The training or education planner will review the conditions defined as problems in order to determine whether or not they constitute learning needs. One outcome of such analysis can be a listing of learning needs, from which the planner negotiates with other stakeholders to set learning objectives, another step in the development of a program design, a subcomponent presented in the following section.

DESIGNING THE PROGRAM

In this component planners focus on the details of the coherent set of activities that comprise an specific educational or training programs: set goals and objectives to accomplish, plan process evaluation of process and outcomes, formulate the instructional design, and designate learning procedures. Through these actions the planner responds proactively to each of the relevant contexts named above.

Set Goals and Objectives to Accomplish. If planners carefully collect information about relevant contexts, they will be prepared to set meaningful and appropriate goals and objectives that will make possible the development of effective programs. It is assumed that goals and objectives thus established will often have greater practical value than those goals and objectives set in an information vacuum and thus unrelated to ongoing reality. The goals and objectives can illuminate all of the subsequent actions of program design.

Evaluation of the Process and Outcomes. Although evaluation is a step that finds expression throughout the entire LEPP model, it is probably most manifest in those steps involved with design of the actual teaching and learning activities. As a design strategy, evaluation can be planned once the purposes and intents of the program are clear. Evaluation permits planners to determine not only outcomes but also the process of their programs. Groteleuschen (1980) refers to *formative*, *summative*, and *future* evaluation. Goldstein (1971) refers to evaluation that includes: pre-testing of learners, monitoring of the training, evaluation of the learning achievement, and evaluation of post-training transfer. In the LEPP model, evaluation can impact the entire program planning process,

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enabling planners to assume a critically reflective perspective by which to examine each of the distinctive components and subcomponents of the planning process.

Formulate Instructional Design. The content and sequence of what is to be learned, consonant with the general goals and objectives, constitutes the instructional design. Although the focus of this subcomponent is instruction, we must remember the intent of such instruction is learning. Ironically, the instructional design must leave open the option of accomplishing the desired changes in performance without necessarily resorting to conventional face-to-face instruction. This point represents a point of departure from those who regard *instructional systems design* as the outcome of face-to-face interventions of a trainer, instructor, or other instructional agent. Although in many instances, learning occurs as the result of such instructional interventions, learning may also result from actions taken by adult learners studying alone, without any direct, face-to-face intervention of an external agent. An instructional design specifies the content to be learned and, in accordance with the principles of adult learning, specifies the order of engagement. The instructional design is formulated as the result of the planner's negotiations with the pertinent stakeholders and becomes a resource for those who share responsibility for its implementation.

Designate Learning Procedures. Together with the learning design, it is necessary to specify the lifelong educational technology to be used. Besides designating the subject or skills, knowledge, and attitudes to be learned, planners must consider the particular ways in which participants are going to experience such learning. For that reason, it is important to think about the most appropriate methods, techniques, and devices (Verner, 1964). In contrast to other models that limit the procedures to those of the classroom, this model permits an infinite number of learning procedures. Remembering Houle's (1972) schema of learning categories, we recognize that human beings can experience lasting changes in their performance as the result of self-directed learning; learning assisted by a tutor or coach; learning as members of groups, not always with a continuous leader; within organizational settings and as part of a mass audience. Effective planners will seek to enlarge continually their repertoire of learning situations in accordance with innovative learning-teaching modalities.

MANAGING ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS

In the development and delivery of educational programs for children, adolescents or young adults, there is usually a highly specialized division of labor. There are specialists who are charged with the design of instruction, delivery of instruction, and administration. For lifelong education programs, however, such division of labor does not always exist. For that reason the LEPP model includes the planning of administrative considerations. If the organization or organizational unit responsible for lifelong education is to provide such programming and if it is to maintain its capacity to continue to provide such programming, such administrative considerations must be addressed. The subcomponents that comprise this component are described below:

Plan Promotion and Marketing. With respect to lifelong education programs, it is not enough to simply design the elements related to the delivery of learning. Programs for adults must also relate to patterns and rhythms of the settings in which they takes place. Promotion serves the purpose of encouraging acceptance of the legitimacy and credibility of the organization or the organizational unit that sponsors the lifelong education programs. The positive image thus generated by the promotional activities form the basis for the subsequent marketing of specific programs, that is activities designed to delineate, understand, and respond to individuals and groups whose opinions and perspectives are critical to the acceptance of the program.

Plan Recruitment and Retention of Participants. One of the distinctive characteristics of lifelong education, in contrast to other levels of human education, is that it is primarily a voluntary enterprise. For that reason, it is not enough to plan the program and merely expect the people to appear. Lifelong educators must think about how to induce the target participants to participate in the programs they offer. At the same time, they must think about specific principles and practices that will increase the likelihood that participants will continue their participation in the programs.

Determine Financial Responsibility. The financial basis for lifelong education programs can vary. It can originate in the financial systems of the sponsoring institution; registration that participants pay; fees the respective membership systems of the participants allocate; and contracts or agreements with businesses, government agencies or non-profit foundations. It is vital that planners cultivate a sense of responsibility and accountability with respect to the resources assigned to them. Due to the sophistication and complexity of financial planning, many superior officers to whom planners report do not expect systems of financial accountability on the part of the education or training planning units. As a result, neither the planners nor their superiors have the slightest idea of the costs and benefits of these functions. It is therefore not surprising that when organizations suffer economic decline, the units responsible for training or education programs can become vulnerable and their activities end up being compromised.

Plan Selection, Supervision, and Training of Instructors. Depending upon the level of the organization at which they work, planners may be responsible for selection, supervision, and training of instructors. If planners are charged with delivering the education and training they themselves design, it will not be their responsibility to select, supervise and train other instructors. However, if planners plan and coordinate programs to be delivered by others, they will have general responsibility for contracting with instructors to impart the instruction. It is assumed that program planners who comprehend this subcomponent of selection, supervision, and training of effective instructors will be better prepared, as training and education functions increase in number and importance, to encourage improvements in the quality of learning activities for the entire organization.

SUMMARY

In this paper we have considered a model of lifelong education program planning that responds to the main criticisms of Cervero and Wilson who correctly point out that most program planning models have excluded reference to the vital role of the planner as a negotiator of multiple interests of multiple stakeholders with differential access to power. It is synthetic in the sense that it incorporates elements of former models. It is comprehensive in two senses: (1) it attempts to cover all possible organized program planning activities, and (2) it attempts to be applicable to every kind of training or education program for adults, whatever the purpose, method, or organizational setting. It is designed both to guide practice and to describe and analyze program planning practice.

Although aspects of the lifelong education process undoubtedly apply to all forms and levels of education across the entire spectrum of purposeful and systematically planned learning, the LEPP model is designed to apply primarily to education and training activities that are planned and implemented for men and women in organizational settings. It is not intended to apply to the numerous forms of informal learning that occur as byproducts of such activities as individual learning outside of organizations, therapy, organizational development, social activism, or participation in social movements. Other approaches to the design of learning experiences in such settings are likely to be more appropriate and effective.

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AN EXAMINATION OF THE CRISIS LEARNING PROCESS AS EXPERIENCED BY FAMILY MEMBERS OF CRITICALLY INJURED RELATIVES IN AN INTENSIVE CARE UNIT: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATORS

Anne M. Devney

"Your family member suffered from multiple trauma" is a statement that immediately raises a family's concern, anxiety, uncertainty, and a dreaded fear of death or disablement. Suddenly the victim's family is launched into a world of emergency intensive medicine, and nursing care. Staff nurses and physicians function with a heightened sense of urgency around complex technology, focusing their energies on the often mute individual who suffered the trauma. From the emergency room, the patient is transferred to the Intensive Care Unit (ICU) and the family begins its supportive watch in the often sparsely appointed waiting room, with little to no privacy.

Hospitalization (especially emergency hospitalization) of a member of a family system creates disorganization of roles and behaviors within the family. There are feelings of helplessness and alienation as well as loss of the ability to access and use available resources. Often, there is temporary reassignment of familial roles until the crisis is resolved (Hodovanic, Reardon, Reese & Hedges, 1984; Shaw & Halliday, 1992). Therefore, the family unit may be unable to participate in care plans developed by the nurse and other allied health care providers with whom they interact to restore the integrity of the familial system (Forrester, Murphy, Price & Monaghan, 1990). A review of literature (Brunner & Suddarth, 1988; Daley, 1984; Freichels, 1991; Taylor, Lillis & Le Mone, 1989; Yura & Walsh, 1983) indicates that the medical and nursing professions espouse family-centered care, yet the patient traditionally has been the focus of care. Even the "Patient's Bill of Rights" neglects mention of the family (American Hospital Association, 1973). Yet every person is the product of a family unit of some kind. Membership in that unit carries with it cultural and social roles, responsibilities, expectations and benefits. The family might be considered a system that interacts with numerous other systems both internal and external to its boundaries. When a family member is ill or in distress, the entire unit/system is affected and may be placed in a crisis situation.

The patient care setting involves three major participants: the injured person, associated family, and health care providers (e.g., nurses and physicians). In order for the patient to achieve the maximum state of health and wellness possible, effective communication among the three groups requires meaningful interaction and understanding. All participants need to be sensitive to the factors that affect communication in the ICU environment. An environment such as the ICU might be considered analogous to an educational setting in which there is a great emphasis on collaborative or collective learning, e.g., nurses and physicians collect, use, and impart information to the client and his/her family. Likewise, the client and family members share information that may guide assessment, treatment and evaluative strategies of the nurses and physicians, e.g., data such as personal habits (sleeping, ambulation, social behaviors, etc.), nutritional likes or dislikes, and personality traits. All participants in this three-way relationship seek a common educational goal – improvement of the client's health by collecting, manipulating and utilizing information for the achievement of identified objectives.

Adults are exposed to any number of planned and unplanned learning experiences throughout their lifetimes. At some point, with the advancement of medical technology, many adults may find themselves at the bedside of a loved one in the ICU of a hospital, possibly experiencing a scenario similar that described above. Members of the entire family in such a crisis situation, become participants in an environment necessitating change on many home, personal, and professional fronts. Coping with those changes will necessitate learning new data. Adults will learn in an attempt to satisfy perceived needs and respond to their current developmental stage and personal perception of social roles (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982).

Jack Mezirow (1991) suggests that learning is a means by which adults attempt to interpret interactions with the world, other people, or themselves. Interpretation of new experiences, such as the bedside vigil and responsibility of making decisions in an unfamiliar arena, is "guided by an old set of expectations" (p. 11). However, he claims that in transformative learning, interpretation is done "from a new set of expectations, thus giving a new meaning and perspective to the old experience" (p. 11). For Mezirow, the central issue and goal of learning is to make meaning of the experience.

In the hospital critical care arena, conditions for learning are present. Involved family members are in a circumstance that focuses attention on change. Change involves learning and, likewise, learning involves change. Participation in the change process urges the utilization and incorporation of available options from relevant resources. Appropriate use of resources result in subsequent patient care and family life decisions. The critical care and hospital surroundings favor learner motivation and readiness to learn. Here, adult learners have multiple resources available to further data acquisition, e.g., nurses, physicians, clergy, therapists, etc. Achievement of the apparent goals and objectives permit learners to act in a different, more informed way. However, the results are not necessarily assessed by the participants in a traditional evaluation setting, e.g., a written test or laboratory performance. However, critical encounters offer adults potentially rich, meaningful experiences for learning within their life worlds.

Responses to a crisis situation have been studied from several perspectives such as crisis intervention, crisis management, and crisis theory. No literature documenting the learning process, needs, or outcomes resulting from involvement in a crisis was identified. Yet, as stated previously, such conditions can situate an adult in a highly motivated learning situation where some valuable learning resources are available. Knowledge of crisis learning has potential to prepare professional personnel to assist those family members to cope successfully with the crisis event. Additionally, knowing that valuable learning comes from participation in a crisis event may allay some fears and strengthen the family members' reactions. This study was designed to identify a theoretical framework that describes crisis learning in an effort to more completely understand the phenomenon and contribute toward the resolution of an apparent void.

METHODOLOGY

This study was undertaken to identify and describe theoretical constructs that will enable health care providers and adult educators to understand the learning process that accompanies an intense crisis situation. Grounded theory, a naturalistic means of inquiry, was felt to be an appropriate methodology as it would be rooted in the participants' own expressed data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

After approval of the study and description of participants by the Institution Review Board (IRB) of Northern Illinois University and participating hospitals, individuals within the ICU and/or research and development departments of surrounding area hospitals and medical centers who admitted trauma patients to their ICUs were then contacted. Staff nurses assigned to the ICU were asked to present an "Invitation to Participate" to potential participants shortly after admission of a patient for traumatic central nervous system (CNS) or spinal cord (SC) injuries. Victims of CNS and SC injuries were sought because such injuries represent the maximum negative insult to the body with potentially lengthy and limited rehabilitation outcomes. Volunteers were interviewed one time between 48 and 72 hours after admission of their loved one to the ICU. This "window of opportunity" gave the family members some time to recover from the initial shock of the event and yet remain in the crisis situation. In an attempt to focus the study on the immediate crisis, only one interview per family was completed.

RESULTS

Interviews of volunteer family members were conducted until saturation of the emerging variables was achieved. A total of seven families, comprised of 18 persons, were interviewed and the transcripts were coded and analyzed. Through multiple levels of coding, family members were noted to actively engage in several phases of learning:

* data collection - details about the event, its associated anatomy and physiology, the medical

equipment in use, treatment procedures and rationale, and medical terminology;
* validation - of information about the diagnosis and the evolving condition, tasks completed by nurses and physicians, and interactions between the staff members and the patient;
* integration - of the data as received and interpreted; and
* evaluation - of the patient's condition, staff members' their own response to the situation.

As the transcripts were initially coded and analyzed, certain relationships emerged and were related by all participants.

* Time was central. Events were marked in their personal time. They easily recalled what they were doing and who they were with. They wanted and needed information right away.
* Spatiality - Nearly all participants recalled their exact location when hearing of the event. Location also played a part in the chronology of events, for example, being in the Emergency Room, the waiting room of the operating room, and the ICU.
* Personhood - Recognition of the personal impact of the event was obvious throughout the interviews with an increased awareness of major changes suddenly occurring in their lives.
* Relationships - Family members reached out to inform, support and assist the patient and each other. They felt and were experiencing changes in their relationships. New perspectives emerged in relation to their own and interpersonal roles, responsibilities, and expectations.
* Personal future - A positive future outcome is central to the successful resolution of the crisis event. In the ICU situation, the future in terms of complete recovery of the patient was often unknown. Additionally, the recovery of the family as a unit was also in doubt.

Using constant comparative analysis, a second level review of the data resulted in four categories: stability, tangibility, ambiguity, and integrity. Stability was rooted in temporal issues as participants sought reassurance from their resources, especially staff nurses and physicians. How often were the patients seen? Were the vital signs stable? What about intracranial pressure? What did the tests show? What is the chance of recovery? Tangibility was focused on acquired factual knowledge of things like diagnostic tests, involved anatomy and physiology, specifics of treatment regimes, and medical terminology. Ambiguity was felt in the area of personal relationships and altered role functions of family members. In one instance, a mother of a car accident victim reflected on the role changes she encountered when caring for her ill mother and now, her daughter. The son of another victim described his concerns regarding the relationship with his father and his injured mother. Integrity revolved around relationships, life perspective changes, role obligations, and cohesiveness. Several participants related the questions they posed to the staff nurses with respect to the equipment, vital signs, level of consciousness, medications, feeding tubes, etc. They used the information to further analyze and/or confirm their personal observations of the injured family member.

A third level of analysis saw the categories merge into three main themes: urgency, control, and identity. There was an urgent need to gain information quickly in order to achieve some control over the circumstance. Suddenly placed in the foreign world of critical care, spending hours and days camped out in a waiting room, waiting, watching, and hoping, family members sensed feelings of alienation and helplessness. When given the opportunity to touch and soothe the patient, family members felt they had some control - even if it was just their own location. They also had some control over the flow of information to their friends and relatives. As data were accumulated, urgency lessened and feelings of control increased. With a stronger sense of control, participants came to grips with self-awareness, their own response and coping strategies, role behaviors, ability to learn new information, i.e., a revised perspective of their own identity. The identity of their injured loved one was also an issue of concern because complete recovery was not a sure thing.

Data analysis yielded the following testable propositions:

1. A person in crisis experiences a sense of urgency to gather, integrate, and make meaning of available data.
    A. Urgency is reflected by a need to attain stability in terms of time, relationships, and hope for the future.
    B. As the felt experience of tangibility increases, feelings of urgency will decrease.
2. A person in crisis has a need for experiencing control by achieving stability and tangibility

of circumstances of the event.

A. As felt control increases, there is a decrease in perceived role ambiguity and responsibility.

B. Feelings of control or lack of control may guide the person towards greater data acquisition and foster data integration within the context of learning and decision making.

3. A person in crisis experiences a need to confirm an increased sense of personal identity in terms of his or her ability to "weather" the crisis. Crisis learning gives the person a greater sense of self-identity. It may also enrich or modify the identity of that person in relation to others (professional, family members, and friends).

A. A person's identity will be affected by the presence of continued urgency and lack of control. The greater the sense of control and lack of urgency, the greater the sense of self-identity. Likewise, the opposite is true, i.e., the greater the sense of urgency and lack of control, there is a reduction in perceived sense of self-identity.

Both urgency and control are integral to identity. In reviewing the data, identity, in its broadest context, is central to the patterns of learning behavior demonstrated by the participants. The model in Figure 1 is offered as a means of visualizing these propositions.

IMPLICATIONS

Crisis learning is another example of the diversity of adult learners and the context in which learning occurs. Here, family members became active serious seekers of knowledge with which to refine or redefine their life worlds. West, Farmer, and Wolffe (1991) stated learning is at the center of our ability to adapt to the most trivial and the most profound environmental demands. It makes the difference between purposeful action and direction-less activity. If we accept such a definition, health care providers and adult educators will have interactions with family members which may be far more meaningful and concise.

Understanding "crisis learning" and its implications can be of great benefit to adult educators and clinicians in the critical care arena. Educators who teach health care providers can make a real contribution to the delivery of quality patient/family care. In addition, health care providers will have a sense of tangible tools to handle sensitive situations. Knowledge of the adult family members' awareness of the environment, the response to the crisis, and the steps taken to cope with the situation can be used to decrease needless anxiety and frustration felt by the learner and health care practitioner. Knowledge gained by the adult family member in an effort to make informed decisions on patient care, personal and family matters can also result in improved interpersonal relationships. However, the ultimate beneficiary may be the critically ill patient, as the family has a tremendous influence on recovery.

Hospital staff members need to be aware that family members situated in a crisis setting are not just passive recipients or bystanders but are, in fact, pursuing data for a specific purpose, i.e., gain control over the crisis situation. Improvement in self-identity is a critical by-product of the crisis learning process. Further research in this area is recommended to clarify and describe theoretical constructs which can be positively used by health care adult educators, providers, and those who deliver intervention for persons in a crisis.

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EDUCATING FOR VOCATIONAL INTEGRATION:
THE ROLE OF SPIRIT AND SOUL IN EDUCATION-FOR-WORK

John M. Dirkx

ABSTRACT

Recent political discourse has focused on work as a means of resolving a variety of perceived social problems and as a catalyst for educational reform. These "new" educational initiatives reflect a highly instrumental and rational approach to work, with little attention given to the emotional and spiritual dimensions of work. Grounded in an emerging "spirituality of work," this paper articulates a vision of education-for-work which attempts to honor and give voice to the deeper place and meaning that work has in our lives.

INTRODUCTION

"To live well is to work well" ... Thomas Aquinas

On a recent bicycle trip through northern Wisconsin, my older brother told me that he had just resigned from his well-paying, mid-level management job with a technical firm. Casey has worked for this company for over 17 years but now, in his early fifties, he is leaving to develop himself as an independent consultant. With no strong prospects in sight and with a basketful of hopes and dreams, he described the feeling of handing in his resignation as a "tremendous sense of liberation." He said, "There have been only two times in my life when I felt that way; when I graduated from high school and when the draft board told me I was 4F [not medically suitable for military service]." We jokingly labeled this new sense of freedom and emancipation he was experiencing as a result of his resignation as the "4F feeling." The 4F feeling reflects a composite of emotions, attitudes, and beliefs that my brother has developed over the years about work and its place in his life and those with whom he works. While experiencing the privileges of a management position, he has learned to feel and see the world of work through the eyes of the worker. The world he sees imprisons rather than liberates the human spirit. Casey's joy represents the leaping of his spirit towards work as a vocation or calling, living to work rather than working to live.

Scholars have long held that work is central to what we hold to be the meaning of life (Fox, 1994), but this idea has experienced something of a renaissance within the last five years. That we live to work is a belief that has gained currency within corporate America (Autry, 1994; Bolman & Deal, 1995; Hawley, 1993). The concepts of "right livelihood" (Fox, 1994; Krishnamurti, 1992) and vocational integration (Sinetar, 1987) convey this fundamental proposition about the inter-relationship of work and life. Ideas of this relationship are increasingly reflected in current social and political discourse in North America and in many other countries. Concern has especially focused on the relationship of education and training to the workforce. Reflected at all levels of education, this discourse provides an important context for reinterpreting the meaning of work in our lives and examining how education-for-work programs can foster a deeper, more spiritual approach to work and its organization. The present study represents the initial stages of a broader inquiry into the meaning of education-for-work, grounded in the ideas of spirit and soul.

WORK AS RIGHT LIVELIHOOD

Succinctly, "right livelihood" implies that we live to work (Krishnamurti, 1992; Sinetar, 1987), that the meaning we attribute to our work contributes a substantial portion of what we come to view as our life's meaning. It is an idea reflected in a number of related concepts, such as flow (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990), and inner work (Fox, 1994) and in concepts which are increasingly defining the field of organizational development, such as the learning organization (Senge, 1990), employee empowerment (Ketchum, & Trist, 1992), paradox (Handy, 1994), and organizational transformation (Adams, 1984; Fletcher, 1990). Work as right livelihood conveys a particular relation of our selves to our work.

> Work is one of the ways that the mature person cares for himself and others. Through his work and relationships the individual finds a place in the world, belongs to it, takes responsibility for himself and others. Work becomes his way of giving of himself. His work... provides him with a way of dedicating himself to life. (Sinetar, 1987, p. 162)

Right livelihood reflects a deep, inner capacity to see meaning in what one is doing and to approach one's work as if it were an expression of one's inner self. To some degree, the specific type of work is less important than the presence of this inner capacity. For work to be perceived as right livelihood, however, the work itself has to be organized and structured in a way that allows for the unfolding of these inner talents. There is a central truth reflected in the instructional traditions of cultures across the world, that work which is done rightly is linked in a critical to the health of the personality and to optimum functioning.

For a variety of reasons, many people have given up on the possibility of doing what they love and what brings joy. Laden with the responsibilities of being task-oriented and productive, our lives fill with the needs of every-day life. In her book *Working Ourselves to Death*, Diane Fassel observes, "Everywhere I go it seems people are killing themselves with work, busyness, rushing, caring, and rescuing. Work addiction is a modern epidemic and it is sweeping our land (quoted in Fox, 1995, p. 26). In his study of working men and women, Terkel (1974) provides a vivid portrayal of working in the United States and how the work we do can and does debilitate the human spirit.

> This book, being about work, is, by its very nature, about violence - to the spirit as well as to the body. It is about ulcers as well as accidents, about shouting matches as well as fistfights, about nervous breakdowns as well as kicking the dog around. To survive the day is triumph enough for the walking wounded among the great many of us. (p. xii)

That work is at the center of adult living seems obvious, an observation often reflected in the self-hatred and despair of the unemployed or the laid-off worker (Deems Laswell, 1994), as well as the stories of working men and women. When we view work as something we do to live or to consume, we split off from ourselves a vital aspect of that which is needed to actualize the deeper, more meaningful dimensions of human experience. The sometimes wrenching narratives presented in Terkel's book seem a far cry from the ideals of right livelihood and vocational integration advocated by recent authors. These stories convey what Thomas Moore (1982) calls a "loss of soul...the great malady of the twentieth century, implicated in all of our troubles and affecting us individually and socially" (p. xi). The continuing sense of alienation that many of us experience in our work reflects the absence in our culture of a deep understanding of the spirit, purpose, and meaning of human experience. Work as right livelihood implies a deep spiritual stance toward one's work, a stance that involves matters of both soul and spirit. To educate for right livelihood is to foster a soulful and spiritual approach to one's chosen work.

SOUL AND SPIRIT IN VOCATIONAL INTEGRATION

When work is experienced as right livelihood, it is possible for individuals to feel a sense of vocational integration, a term Sinetar (1987) uses to reflect the experience of one's work as a calling. The term integration is borrowed from Thomas Merton's notion of the "final integration," connoting a completeness of personality and actualization of an individual's highest motives. Vocational integration implies the experience of work as both soulful and spiritual (Richards, 1995). These terms are not tied to any particular religion or theological school of thought. Rather, scholars who have been trying to articulate their meanings for contemporary society rely on rich traditions in myth and religions from a variety of cultures and time. While soul is impossible to define precisely, a number of characteristics provide some basis for understanding what it means. It has to do with "genuineness and depth...life in all its particulars...[It] is revealed in attachment, love, and community (Moore, 1982, pp. xi-xii). Soul refers to deep, personal experience. Soulful persons treasure what is unique about themselves and their life journey (Bolen, (1995). Individual soul life consists "of all our sympathies and antipathies; it is filled with all our desires, needs, wants" (Sordello, 1985, p. xvi). The work of the soul is in committing ourselves to become who we are meant to be. It is not about self-development as a project of the ego but, rather, connecting us through imagination to a deeper journey of which we are a part.

Spirit is, in some respects, the flip-side of soul and contributes to the health of the soul. It refers to that which is "transcendent and all-embracing...the universal source, the oneness of all things" (Bolman and Deal, 1995, p. 9). Spirit is represented in such things as an articulated world view, value frameworks that are thoughtfully arrived at, family traditions and values, and a sense of connectedness to the whole (Moore, 1992). The spiritual life is informed by a myth of immortality and an attitude toward death. The soul needs a kind of spirituality that is not at odds with the everydayness of our lives.

We can use the experience of this inquiry to illustrate the meaning of soul and spirit in work. As I contemplate the soulful aspects of this project, I attend to the deep emotions that it evokes in me. I know in a concrete way that this work resonates with some deep aspect of myself. In a sense, I don't choose this material. It chooses me. Some of the emotions which accompany this experience are pleasurable and "positive," such as joy. I feel connected to a sense of meaning which is quite powerful. It is exciting, energizing, and empowering. Along with these positive emotions, however, arise a variety of uncomfortable feelings. Doubt and uncertainty whirl around virtually every effort I make in this project. Feelings of insecurity pull me into typical ways of being that seem to stretch back into early childhood. Images of these experiences mingle with my here-and-now efforts to name and clarify soulful and spiritual dimensions of work. Voices of potential critics compete with those future readers offering praise and compliments. Part of soulwork is to accept and nurture these emotions and feelings, whether pleasurable or painful, to stay grounded in their concreteness, and to learn from them.

The spirit of this work is expressed by the commitment and belief I have that the world of work can and needs to be quite different, that work as it is currently experienced by many distorts and disfigures the experience of being human. I have a perspective, a value framework of human nature in which I perceive and interpret human experiences, contemporary work practices and their conditions. Along with the rage (soulful) that sometimes is stirred up about such matters is a vision and a hope (spirit-like) that work can be experienced in more meaningful ways at both the individual and socio-cultural levels. A truly spiritual approach to work involves matters of both soul and spirit (Moore, 1992).

THE OLD ORDERS DON'T WORK ANYMORE

Richards (1994) argues that those of us who work with the world of work in some ways are like the lamplighter in Saint-Exupery's *The Little Prince*. We take actions in response to "outdated orders based on questionable beliefs about our world" (p. 2). Recent education-for-work initiatives continue to rely on a highly technical, rational, and instrumental view of work and exclude or ignore the affective, psychosocial, and existential meanings which many of us attach to our work. These newer initiatives reflect changes in our ideas and techniques about education-for-work, but they also reveal a reluctance to let go of outmoded, Newtonian beliefs about work and the workplace. That we live to work does not seem to be a fundamental premise on which many of these initiatives are grounded.

Education-for-work initiatives must revision the meaning of work. This revisioning needs to take place in terms of how we think about the meaning of work and how we can reorganize and repattern the structures of work to provide for a more spiritual attitude toward work. The reinvention of work and the "new orders" which we need in education-for-work must be grounded fundamentally in an inner work, "that large world within our souls or selves" (Fox, 1995, p. 20). Educating for vocational integration is different from traditional vocational and career counseling, which typically tries to match interests, talents and skills with work opportunities. This form of career counseling is based largely on what brings pleasure to the ego, such as the experience of being competent or of being rewarded for doing good work. The idea of vocational integration is grounded in a deeper sense of the person as worker. Work as right livelihood is an expression of the soulful dimensions of the psyche, those aspects of our personalities which are nonegoic, which firmly anchor us as individuals within the broader world of which we are a part. To educate for vocational integration reflects an emphasis on developing "inner" knowledge and skills through which one comes to perceive the meaning and value of one's work. Educating for vocational integration needs to facilitate this inner work and the self-knowledge which results.

Much work remains to be done in understanding how educating for vocational integration may be experienced within the different contexts of education-for-work, such as school-to-work, job training, workplace literacy, education for the professions, and continuing professional education. In the remainder of this paper, however, I will explore some ideas which can be used as a general framework for conceptualizing a process of educating for vocational integration. I will first discuss the need to reframe what we do in these programs and then briefly discuss some instructional approaches which are consistent with nurturing soul and spirit within the context of work.

UNLEARNING THE OLD ORDERS. The movie, "Higher Learning" is instructive in understanding what is needed to establish a new set of "orders" or beliefs. Following the explosive and tragic concluding scenes, the viewer watches the word "unlearn" appear in the closing frames against an otherwise blank, dark screen. The letters gradually turn to a searing read, as if trying to communicate the urgency and imperative of the message. A great deal of unlearning will have to take place to establish new orders in education-for-work programs, particularly with respect to our attitudes, beliefs, and habits about the place of affect in the learning process. The inner work needed for vocational integration requires attention to the soul and spirit. Nourishing these aspects of our experiences will require us to explicitly recognize and fully accept the place of emotion and feelings in learning. Despite numerous calls for more attention to this dimension of learning (Greenhalgh, 1994), both educators and learners continue to resist a full integration of this aspect of the human experience into educational processes. From an early age, we are taught to repress strong expression of emotions in learning settings. Teachers of adults often view the presence of emotional issues among learners as an "obstacle" or "barrier" to the learning process (Dirkx & Spurgin, 1992). In education-for-work programs, instructional processes are largely based on a highly rational and, for the most part, technical view of learning. The implicit message in much of our education is that the true source of knowledge and wisdom is the head rather than the heart. We often turn a deaf ear to the language of our feelings. As evident in the stories the workers in Terkel's book tell, however, work involves strong affective meanings which serve to shape our relationship to and attitudes about what we do for a living. Through its attention to powerful emotions and deep feelings, educating for vocational integration helps identify and name this relationship.

LEARNING FROM THE DARK SIDE. While *what* we do is important in achieving vocational integration, one's orientation or perspective on work is equally important. For Sinetar (1987), vocational integration involves the transformation of duty into love, fascination, or pleasure. This transformation often takes place only with considerable inner work. A variety of negative qualities can characterize our experience of work, such as irritation, misunderstanding, disagreements, pain, exhaustion, and strain. Rather than running from these experiences, inner work requires that we look for the meaning behind these experiences, the gift that is being presented (Fox, 1994). Rather than quitting when faced with these experiences, the transformation of duty into love requires that we dive more deeply into our work. This transformative process is filled with darkness and even despair, and our cultural response is to avoid it, to run from it. Yet, in doing so, we run from the very soul of our work. When we do, we run from ourselves and the opportunity to do the inner work necessary for this transformation. The capacity to do this inner work and to achieve this transformation of work reflects the development of skill and self-knowledge. While the idea of work as love and devotion might seem the province of the well-paid, white collar jobs, Csikszentmihalyi (1990) provides substantial evidence of workers in seemingly meaningless jobs who experience their work as right livelihood:

> The old woman who farms in the Alps, the welder in South Chicago, and the mythical cook from ancient China have this in common: their work is hard and unglamorous, and most people would find it boring, repetitive, and meaningless. Yet these individuals transformed the jobs they had to do into complex activities. They did this by recognizing opportunities for action where others did not, by developing skills, by focusing on the activity at hand, and allowing themselves to be lost in the interaction so that their selves could emerge stronger afterward (p. 151).

FOSTERING MINDFULNESS. Descriptions of work as flow and right livelihood strongly resemble the nature of "mindfulness" reflected in Zen Buddhism and other eastern disciplines. The level of knowledge and skill reflected in vocational integration can be fostered by cultivating a process of mindfulness within the worker. Being mindful of one's work means concentrating on "one's job even, or especially, during ordinary, boring times" (Sinetar, 1987, p. 165). It means bringing oneself into full awareness of the ordinary, unnoteworthy, and immediate moment. Developing this attitude towards one's work - the idea of work as flow or right livelihood - is a form of spiritual practice and perhaps one of the hardest of all. It means paying attention within what might be perceived by others as the most boring and dull of tasks, to be of the present, to be mindful of the now in each activity of our ordinary life.

EDUCATING FOR VOCATIONAL INTEGRATION

Education-for-work which seeks to foster a sense of right livelihood needs to stress the worker's relation to his or her job and the way he or she perceives his or her goals in relation to the job. There are several strategies that can be used to achieve this goal. Facilitating the development of "new orders" is an important goal for instructors and trainers. One of the most powerful ways to facilitate these new orders is to *model*, through one's own life and instructional behaviors, the vision and values implicit in educating for vocational integration. Their actions and words serve to legitimate and authorize the kinds of emotional and affective experiences typically restrained in educational settings. Related to modeling is an emphasis on the "here-and-now," as well as the "there-and-then." A *here-and-now focus* seeks to understand what is going on within the concreteness and uniqueness of our present experience of learning together. It attends to the "process" issues or the more emotional dimensions of learning together. It is a soulful approach to the learning process.

Relationships with others represent an important issue to emerge within a here-and-now focus. Relationships represent a powerful approach to understanding the soul (Moore, 1992). Building healthy and meaningful relationships with co-workers strikes closely at the heart of what inner work involves. These relationships often embody the deepest concerns of the self. A number of educational strategies can be used which foster relationships within the educational or training context. Instructional and training activities, such as discussion or dialogue groups, cooperative learning projects, and team-building exercises provide an educational context in

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which the quality of relationships provides an important component of the work and learning accomplished. One of the most powerful ways of connecting with soul is through narrative (Estes, 1992). In the *telling and hearing of stories*, we connect in a deep and concrete way with the myths and fables of our own lives. The images and metaphors of stories illuminate inner truths in ways more abstract and analytical methods cannot do. For this reason, story-telling should be a central aspect of all education-for-work programs that seek to foster vocational integration. Learners should be encouraged to write and tell stories about their experiences of work; the kinds of work they have done, the places in which they work has been performed, the people with whom it was done. Throughout this story-telling, learners need to emphasize what this work has meant to them. Terkel's (1974) work serves as a model of the kind of story-telling that can help individuals and instructors identity and name the inner truths which have framed the meaning of work for these learners.

In conclusion working is "about a search...for daily meaning as well as daily bread, for recognition as well as cash, for astonishment rather than torpor; in short, for a sort of life rather than a Monday through Friday sort of dying" (Terkel, 1974, p. xiii).

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THE NEED FOR AN OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF QUALITY TO GUIDE ADULT EDUCATION AND TRAINING PRACTICE

John C. Donovan and James C. Fisher

ABSTRACT

This paper explores the question of extending the "quality revolution" into the adult education and training areas without the aid of an accepted definition of quality. To hit a target, it must first be defined. A difficulty with quality is that there are a great many definitions, none exactly relevant to adult education and training. This paper explores available definitions from product quality and service quality. From those areas, it is apparent that quality is synonymous with meeting the expectations of customers. The operational specifics are articulated in terms of dimensions or attributes of the product or service. That type of definition of quality is entirely consistent with the tenets of adult education and training which focus on the learner. Further, the theories of adult education and training provide a rich source of learning event attributes which can be compared with the degree to which expectations are met to produce an operational definition.

INTRODUCTION

Triggered by the airing of an NBC "white paper" entitled "If Japan Can, Why Can't We?" in 1980 (Conway, 1992), the quality revolution in America and the western world is now in its second decade. While much focus was given to sophisticated measurement and analytical techniques, one of the key elements was the evolution of an accepted definition of the word quality. The dictionary definition of the word quality is the degree of excellence or superiority which a thing possesses. However, to many consumers, quality meant luxury. To others, it meant costliness. To still others, it meant functionality, number or sophistication of features, or perhaps *value*, the ratio of features and functions to cost.

As the concepts of quality find application in more areas, each area must come to grips with developing a definition of what the term quality means in that particular sphere of practice. This paper addresses the need for adult education and training to develop an accepted research based operational definition of quality to guide practitioners in producing *quality* adult education and training and offers insight into the problem of translating quality as theory into quality as practice. This paper draws on quality definitions from the realms of manufactured products and consumer services and connects them to adult education and training.

THE NEED FOR A DEFINITION OF QUALITY

The need for a definition of quality in adult education and training may not be immediately apparent. Although an accepted definition may not be in place, the concept of quality is not foreign to adult educators and trainers. Learner-centeredness in adult education is the equivalent of the customer focus in quality. Words such as *excellence* or *effectiveness* may have been used in training as synonyms for quality. Indeed, many trainers in business and industry are involved in training others in the principles of quality and quality improvement. Yet, there is a need to define quality in adult education and training practice. We will rely on two common sense arguments.

First, without a clear definition of quality as an objective, the trainer or adult educator is left with no choice but to treat quality as an adjective synonymous with goodness and to strive to do his or her best. With an operational definition in hand, there is a greater likelihood that the quality target will be hit. Put another way, clarity in objectives is held to be a key to training and education effectiveness. Quality can be thought of as an overarching objective of a structured adult learning activity. Thus, a clear definition of quality will facilitate the attainment of that objective.

The second argument derives from an old adage that says the man with two watches never knows what time it is. So too with definitions of quality. The abundance of definitions of quality in other spheres leads to confusion in practice. It seems prudent to draw on a variety those definitions of quality to build a basis for an operational definition of quality for adult education and training. We will consider first definitions of product and service quality before considering elements of adult education and training theory that could be used to define quality in those areas.

QUALITY OF PRODUCTS

Quality is probably as old as perception - respect for a finely crafted object is not new. With the advent of the industrial revolution and mass production, the ability of an individual worker to take pride of authorship was impaired. To compensate, standards of quality were instituted, and positions were created for inspectors to verify that products met the quality standard. Perhaps the most widely respected champion of quality to emerge from the product realm was W. Edwards Deming. Deming (1982, p. 168-69) contends with the definition of quality in this way:

> What is quality? Quality can be defined only in terms of the agent. Who is the judge of quality? . . . The difficulty in defining quality is to translate future needs of the user into measurable characteristics, so that a product can be designed and turned out to give satisfaction at a price that the user will pay. . . . The quality of any product or service has many scales. A product may get a high mark, in the judgment of the consumer, on one scale, and a low mark on another.

Imbedded in this discourse are several key points of relevance. First, quality is not to be considered as an abstraction, but rather in terms of the "agent" or thing possessing the degree of quality. Second, the judge of quality is the user or customer. Third, it is not the totality of the product that matters, but rather the performance of the several characteristics of the product. And fourth, since not all consumers have the same perspective, there are many scales of quality.

Another of the "gurus" of American quality, Joseph Juran (1989, p. 15) succinctly defined quality as "fitness for use." This definition is clearly directed to utility and suggests an element of involvement by the *user* or customer. Juran and Gryna (1988, p. 2.2), note: "The word quality has multiple meanings. Two of those meanings dominate the use of the word: 1. Quality consists of those product features which meet the needs of customers and thereby provide product satisfaction. [and] 2. Quality consists of freedom from deficiencies." Here, again, the customer is seen as the judge of quality, and the satisfaction of that customer with the product's performance is the standard, while the traditional freedom from defects is generalized to be freedom from deficiencies, a far broader word.

Garvin (1988), in addressing managing the quality of manufactured products, offers five definitions of quality: transcendent, product-based, user-based, manufacturing-based, and value-based. Transcendent quality, according to Garvin (1988, p. 41) "is synonymous with 'innate excellence'. . . that quality cannot be defined precisely, that it is a simple, unanalyzable property we learn to recognize only through experience." It is that aspect of quality which provides little guidance to practitioners. In contrast, product-based definitions of quality "view quality as a precise and measurable variable. Differences in quality thus reflect differences in the quality of some ingredient or attribute possessed by the product" (p. 42). Definitions of this sort, which bring to mind the "manufacturing model" that educators shun, are of limited utility. "User-based definitions start from the premise that quality 'lies in the eyes of the beholder.' Individual consumers are assumed to have different wants or needs, and the goods that best satisfy their preferences are the ones they regard as having the highest quality" (p. 43). A user-based definition comes close to embracing accepted principles of adult education. According to Garvin (1988, p. 44), "manufacturing-based definitions focus on the supply side of the equation and are primarily concerned with engineering and manufacturing practice. Virtually all manufacturing-based definitions identify quality as 'conformance to requirements.' Once a design or a specification has been established, any deviation implies a reduction in quality. Excellence is equated with meeting specifications and with 'making it right the first time.'" Finally, "Value-based definitions take such ideas a step further: They actually define quality in terms of costs and prices. Thus, a quality product is one that provides performance or conformance at an acceptable price or cost. By this reasoning, a $500 running shoe, no matter how well constructed, could not be a quality product, for it would find few buyers" (Garvin, 1988, p. 45). This set of definitions illustrates the complexity of this definitional dilemma.

In addition, Garvin notes that a part of the "problem" with a complex concept like quality is the lack of adequate terminology to specifically describe the concept. The above definitions suggest the scope of the problem. To aid in understanding the concept, Garvin (1988, pp. 49-68) disaggregates the concept of [product] quality into eight elements or dimensions: performance, features, reliability, conformance to standards, durability, serviceability, aesthetics, and perceived quality. Except for "perceived quality," these elements will stand here as being self-explanatory. Perceived quality relates to a situation in which an element cannot be observed directly and must be inferred indirectly from the reputation of the manufacturer, advertising, or the country of origin of the product. These eight dimensions of quality may suggest attributes of an adult learning experience which contribute to the experience being perceived as a quality learning experience.

Finally, in a small fable about quality entitled I Know It When I See It, Guaspari (1985) contends that while many people may not be able to define quality, they have a sense of it - they know it when they see it. This suggests that quality is meeting expectations.

SERVICE QUALITY

In the years since 1980, the concepts of quality have been applied to the realm of services. Albrecht and Zemke (1985) in their book Service America! were among the first to draw attention to quality in the service realm, a less tangible target than product quality. They noted, for example, that "People do not just buy things, they also buy expectations" (p. 16). Since the expectations of individuals are probably likely to be as different as the people themselves are, the definition of service quality is likely to be inexact and individualized. Later, Albrecht and Zemke assert that "The receiver's expectations of the service are integral to his or her satisfaction with the outcome. Quality of service is largely a subjective matter" (p. 37). That assertion hits at the essence of the question being considered here. The quality of a service experience is judged relative to the expectations of the individuals being served, and since the expectations can be as different as the individuals, defining quality in a service setting is difficult. Since adult education and training are services, the need for and difficulty in developing a definition of quality are apparent.

In a significant body of work on the quality of retail services, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1985) note that service quality is more difficult to evaluate than product quality because of three characteristics of service - intangibility, heterogeniety, and inseparability. Because most services are intangibles or "performances rather than objects, precise manufacturing specifications concerning uniform quality can rarely be set. . . . Second, services, especially those with high labor content, are heterogeneous: their performance often varies from producer to producer, from customer to customer, and from day to say. . . . Third, production and consumption of many services are inseparable" (Parasuraman et al., 1985, p. 42).

Parasuraman et al. (1985, p. 42) summarize writings on service quality by noting three underlying themes: "Service quality is more difficult for the consumer to evaluate than goods quality. Service quality perceptions result from a comparison of consumer expectations with actual service performance. [and] Quality evaluations are not made solely on the outcome of the service; they also involve evaluations of the *process* of service delivery." Parasuraman et al (1985, p. 42) cite Lewis and Booms' definition of service quality as a consensus: "Service quality is a measure of how well the service level delivered matches customer expectations. Delivering quality service means conforming to customer expectations on a consistent basis."

In a subsequent study, Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry (1988) evaluated ten potentially overlapping dimensions of service quality: Tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, communication, credibility, security, competence, courtesy, understanding/knowing the customer, and access. Tests with 200 respondents representing customers of five different service industries showed that the ten dimensions could be statistically collapsed into five dimensions: Tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy, where each was defined as below:

> Tangibles: Physical facilities, equipment, and appearance of personnel
> Reliability: Ability to perform the promised service dependably and reliably
> Responsiveness: Willingness to help customers and provide prompt service.
> Assurance: Knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence
> Empathy: Caring, individualized attention the firm provides its customers (p. 23)

Later, Berry, Parasuraman, and Zeithaml (1994) surveyed 1900 service customers of five large service companies, asking them to allocate 100 points among the above five dimensions with the following results: Reliability received 32% of the points, responsiveness, 22%, assurance, 19%, empathy, 16%, and tangibles, 11%.

It seems clear that the customer and his/her expectations must be at the heart of any definition of quality. Further, that definition must be articulated in terms of the attributes of the quality "item."

QUALITY IN ADULT EDUCATION

Knowles (1990) has advanced a theory of adult learning known as andragogy; in later versions, andragogy has been termed a *model* rather than a theory. The andragogical model of Knowles (1990) is stated in the form of six assumptions: 1. The need to know; 2. The learners' self-concept; 3. The role of the learners' experience; 4. Readiness to learn; 5. Orientation to learning; and 6. Motivation. The essence of assumptions two through five have been a continuing part of the Knowles thinking (see Knowles, 1973). Assumptions one and six are of more recent vintage.

Although the above are often taken as the essence of Knowles' teachings, they are not the "model" which he advocates. Rather, Knowles (1990, pp. 118) advances a process oriented model (as opposed to a content oriented one) for implementing andragogy in human resources development; this model or "set of procedures" is comprised of seven elements for involving the learners: "(1) establishing a climate conducive to learning; (2) creating a mechanism for mutual planning; (3) diagnosing the needs for learning; (4) formulating program objectives . . . that will satisfy these needs; (5) designing a pattern of learning experiences; (6) conducting these learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials; and (7) evaluating the learning outcomes and rediagnosing learning needs." Although Knowles does not directly address the issue of quality of adult learning, it seems reasonable to assume he might term an adult learning experience that was developed and implemented using the seven-element process against the backdrop of the six assumptions of andragogy to be a *quality* adult learning experience.

Brookfield (1986) offers six "principles for effective practice" which could be viewed as attributes:

- Participation in learning is voluntary. . . .
- Effective practice is characterized by a respect . . . for each other's self-worth. . . .
- Facilitation is collaborative. . . .
- Praxis is placed at the heart of effective facilitation. . . .
- Facilitation aims to foster in adults a spirit of critical reflection. . . .
- The aim of facilitation is the nurturing of self-directed, empowered adults. (pp. 10-11)

Grotelueschen (1986) considered the question of "quality assurance in continuing professional education" in a paper bearing that title. In that paper, he suggests a format for an evaluation instrument for Continuing Professional Education programs which includes four evaluation categories, Instructional Method, Content, Participant Benefits, and Setting. Under each of these categories, six different questions are offered.

Wlodkowski (1986, p. 17) offers four elements or core characteristics of a motivating instructor of adults which "can be learned, controlled, and planned for by anyone who instructs adults. . . . These four cornerstones are *expertise, empathy, enthusiasm, and clarity*."

Certainly, the list could go on. However, it seems clear that adult education literature places the learner, who we might choose to think of as the customer, in the focal point of adult education. It would be well then to place the learner/customer at the center of our definition of quality in adult education. Having done so, what might the attributes of an adult learning experience be? Here we can look to the literature. For example, from Knowles, the degree to which the experience of the learners was used in the learning event or the conduciveness of the climate could be attributes. From Brookfield, the degree to which critical reflection was encouraged is another. The enthusiasm level could be drawn from Wlodkowski, and Grotelueschen has a ready made list.

QUALITY IN TRAINING

It should be noted here that training differs little in practice from adult education. To most, education would be thought of as being more general and future oriented while training relates to a specific proficiency currently required. Of particular import is the fact that adult education generally involves only the learner and the "provider." In contrast, in training, there is a third party involved, the sponsoring organization, which has a vested interest in the outcome of the training.

A second preamble point is appropriate. There are two distinct segments of literature on training quality. One covers training others on the concepts of quality; Cocheu (1992) and Johnson (1993) are examples of this segment. The second group which is of relevance here addresses the problem of training in a quality way or training well; examples of that group include Carr (1990) and Thomas (1992). Carr (1990, p. 59) notes, "Quality is simply another name for customer satisfaction, which no one can afford to ignore for long." According to Carr, there are three different types of quality, *process quality*, or what one does and how one goes about doing it to produce a product or service, *product or service quality*, or the specific results which are delivered to the customer, and *benefit quality*, or the benefit the customer gains from the product or service. Regarding benefit quality, Carr (1990, p. 62) notes, "In truth, a customer never purchases a product or service; she pays for a benefit–some result gained from the product or service. . . . One of the most common forms of customer dissatisfaction–i.e., lack of quality–is the failure of the product or service to provide the expected benefits." Thomas' definition echoes that of Carr.

What might be attributes of a quality training experience be? The American Society for Training and Development has been strangely silent on the question, choosing instead to focus on the roles and competencies of trainers. One might conclude that a trainer possessing the competencies has the potential to provide quality training. In the latest in a series of such studies (McLagan, 1989a, b, c, & d, and Rothwell and Sredl, 1992), there are eleven roles, ranging from instructor/facilitator to HRD manager to researcher, and thirty-five competencies grouped under four headings: technical, business, interpersonal, and intellectual competency, which range from facilities skill to industry understanding and from presentation skill to intellectual versatility.

Powers (1992) offers sixty performance standards for instructor excellence in training including the management of nervousness, evidence of a positive attitude and hand gestures not being distracting. Each of these attributes might contribute to the quality of a training experience.

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Finally, *de facto* definitions of quality training exist. Kirkpatrick's (1994) four levels of training program evaluation, reaction, learning, behavior, and results, might be thought of as levels of quality. Robinson and Robinson (1989), writing from the perspective of the third party sponsor of training, contend that only results that impact the organization's performance are relevant.

The key question is whether meeting the expectations of the trainees is an adequate definition of training quality or whether the impact on the organization must be factored in. Two things favor the trainee perspective. First, their perceptions are immediate whereas the impact on the organization may delayed. Second, there is no reason to believe they are mutually exclusive.

CONCLUSION

It is the goal of this paper to propose an operational definition of quality in adult education and training. Whether drawing on the literature on product quality or service quality, the same conclusion is reached: quality means meeting customer expectations. Is that adequate for our purposes? Although the word "customer" may be foreign to the adult education realm (client or simply learner might be preferred), the concept is not. The whole thrust of adult education is to focus on the learner, to make learning experiences learner-centered. However, in adult education and training, the main focus has been on learner *needs*, an elemental perspective, rather than expectations. The opportunity is there to aim higher. Thus, we define a quality learning experience in an adult education or training setting as one which meets the learners' expectations.

Simple, powerful, consistent, and yet sadly lacking in terms of operational guidance. What is needed is an elaboration of those expectations in terms of the attributes (or characteristics or elements or dimensions) of the learning experience. Certainly, the expectations of adult learners may include some elements which are beyond the control of the facilitator or instructor. An operational definition should include elements which are within the control of the facilitator and which thus enable that adult educator to enhance performance against learner expectations.

What is the source of the elements? As illustrated here, both the theories of adult education and training and the definitions from other areas provide potential sources of the elements to be evaluated for a particular population. Further, the elements from product quality, for example, are not inconsistent with the teachings of adult education. For example, Juran's "fitness for use" definition complements Knowles' assumption about "orientation to learning." Similarly, the "setting" category of Grotelueschen is not unlike the "tangibles" referred to by Parasuraman, Zeithaml, and Berry in their work on service quality. What is needed to develop an operational definition of quality for a particular population is research to evaluate the relative importance of a set of relevant theory-based elements to the overall expectations of the population. With such a definition in hand, quality in adult education and training should cease to be an abstraction and has the potential to become, instead, a distinct and attainable goal, to the benefit of both the adult learners and the adult education and training practitioners.

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THE USE OF REFLECTION-IN-ACTION BY NOVICE AND EXPERIENCED EXTENSION ADULT EDUCATORS: IMPLICATION FOR COOPERATIVE EXTENSION PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT: This qualitative study documented the use of reflection-in-action by adult extension educators in problematic situations. The focus of the study was to explore aspects of Schön's theory. The results supported the basic assumption of Schön's theory that reflecting practitioners use a constructionist's decision-making perspective while non-reflecting educators use a technical rational decision model. However, the findings did not strongly support the action testing hypothesis of Schön's theory. The findings demonstrated that reflecting educators, whether novice or experienced, use reflecting-in-action and reflecting-on-action as a means to develop expertise. The results indicated that experience alone is not the "master teacher" of the reflective process. The intent of this study was to come to some understanding of how extension adult educators use reflection-in-action to solve work related problems. The data collected has implications for Cooperative Extension's traditionally held technical-rational assumptions and organizational culture.

METHODOLOGY

The study examined aspects of Schön's theory of reflection-in-action by describing novice and experienced adult educators' usage of reflection. A questionnaire including a problematic situation was sent to fifty-two novice and experienced extension educators. Response to the problematic situation was used to sort participants into novice and experienced subgroups who were judged to be using or not using reflection-in-action. Eight novice and ten experienced educators were interviewed using a standardized open-ended interview guide incorporating three think-aloud problematic situations. The data generated were systematically analyzed using Strauss and Corbin's (1990) coding process. The five primary themes that emerged are: definition of problematic incident; generation of solution alternatives, testing-in-action of selected solutions, reaction to incongruents, and reflection-on-action -- a learning strategy. From analysis, the core theme, decision vs. performance of duties, evolved which is the study's central phenomenon.

INTRODUCTION

Highly successful practitioners have developed a level of expertise which is characterized by their ability to spontaneously generate solutions within problematic situations (Cervero, 1990; Schön, 1987). Experience generated within the context of action is viewed as playing a key role in the development of professional expertise by both Schön's (1987) reflection-in-action model and cognitive psychology theory (Benner, 1984; Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986). Both theoretical frameworks focus upon the key role experience provides in the development of expertise.

A review of cognitive psychological literature reveals that experience is viewed as the mechanism that refines the novice's rule-driven performance into the highly personal, fluid, holistic practice of the expert (Chi, Glaser & Farr, 1988; Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986; Patel & Groen, 1991). From this perspective, experience is viewed as the "teacher" of skills and knowledge needed to become an expert.

Schön (1987) also proposes that reflection-in-action evolves from experience. However, within Schön's writings a contradiction appears to exist in how the reflection-in-action

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process develops. Schön indicates that reflection-in-action is an innate process emulating from the competencies one already possesses, and he also postulates that reflection-in-action is generated and reshaped through experimentation and reflection.

This paper reviews and reports research findings of an investigation that studied these two theoretical frameworks of expertise. The research study was designed to collect descriptive documentation that could be used to clarify ambiguities in Schön's theory regarding the development of reflection-in-action and its role in the emergence of expertise. From these findings implications for extension practice were extrapolated.

FINDINGS

The data revealed two significantly different patterns in the ways reflecting and non-reflecting extension educators resolved practice problems. Reflecting educators, whether novice or experienced, resolved problems by becoming personally involved in a holistic contextual exploration of the problem's definition and solution process. Reflection-on-action was the vital component of their decision-making processes which provided the mechanism for learning that improved their future decision-making strategies. The novice reflecting educator demonstrated skillful use of the reflecting-in-action and reflecting-on-action processes as did the experienced reflecting practitioners.

The non-reflecting practitioners, both novice and experienced, consistently demonstrated their strong reliance upon the technical rational model of decision making. These extension educators viewed their decision making as applying the steps of a process with limited personal involvement. By distancing themselves from the process the results were viewed simply as outcomes; outcomes to be evaluated as successful or not. The outcomes were not used as a stimuli for further problem solving or for reflecting-on the decision process. Participant's comments included: "I try not to second guess cause you just beat yourself on the head. Hindsight's twenty-twenty vision."

MODE OF PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION

The mode of problem identification emerged as one of the most significant differences between the reflecting and non-reflecting groups. The novice and experienced reflecting educators spent more time in the process of contextually defining the uniqueness of the problem within a context of contributing factors. They sought to know as much as possible about the problem that clearly defined its unique parameters. The reflective practitioners further contextualized problems by framing them in terms of the people involved and the resulting interaction. The reflecting educators involved others in helping them to define the presenting problem.

In contrast, the non-reflecting novice and experienced educators approached problem identification by focusing upon isolating what's wrong as quickly as possible so it could be addressed. A situation was categorized as a problem, "because it's not happening as it should," therefore, action was warranted to react. Once identified the problem was quickly put into a category so it could be defined, solutions generated and resolved. Novice non-reflecting practitioners spoke of bypassing the defining stage to moving directly into the action phase. "I don't think I take the time to stop and say okay this is the problem. I just see something that's not right and try to fix that."

SOLUTION GENERATION

The non-reflecting practitioners sought to, as quickly as possible, identify a self-perceived acceptable solution that was attainable within the confines of the present situation. The reflecting educators interactively generated solutions by involving others within the situation and looked beyond the parameters of the context to address the problem in a way which meets the expressed needs of those involved.

TESTING-IN-ACTION OF SOLUTIONS

The testing-in-action of selected solutions was evidenced in descriptions of reflecting educators as a mental rehearsal process which supported the generation of new alternatives not previously identified. They described a kind of interactive experimentation in which competing solutions were tested to gain feedback subsequently used to adjust their problem definition and generate new solutions. "You've got to think about all your alternatives, and then you've got to think about the impact, and there's always an impact."

The non-reflective practitioners, weighed the pros and cons of alternatives, then selected the alternative that was judged "best" and enacted it. The process only involved others if they asked for advice about "what I should do" in the situation, not for the purpose of testing the appropriateness of alternatives.

RESPONSE TO INCONSISTENCIES

Inconsistencies occurring within the problem-solving process were viewed as positive occurrences that strengthened the reflective educators' decision-making process. Incongruents triggered in them the reframing process. "Maybe that glitch is because you're working on the wrong thing so I'd go back, not just to what are my alternatives, but go back to the situation and decide if I really defined the problem right to begin with."

Non-reflecting educators portrayed an impersonal perspective of dealing with unexpected problem inconsistencies. Experienced, non-reflecting educators viewed inconsistencies as inconveniences which one had to deal with by returning to their previously identified list of alternatives to select another solution. "If it's not going to be one solution I'm going to have a B and sometimes even a C, at least an A, B and a C." Novice, non-reflecting practitioners reacted with an emotional response of "not knowing what to do." The distancing process fostered their conception that they had limited control over problem resolution. "I really kind of have the attitude that if things are supposed to happen they'll happen, if things aren't supposed to happen they won't and there's not a lot of need to get real upset or concerned about it."

REFLECTION-ON-ACTION

The use of reflection-on-action, a reconstructive mental review, played an integral role in the reflecting educators' decision processes and provided the avenue to learn from the process. "It's almost like reliving the situation or second guessing yourself if you would have made another decision or you would have said something else or if you would have done something different, then maybe things would have been different and again it's not just the wrong decisions that I reflect." The reflective process focused on the role the individual played in the problem resolution process. The reflective educator's personal involvement provided the mechanism which supported their assessment of their assumptions and behaviors in relation to the problem's resolution.

Little or no evidence of reflection-on-action was revealed in the responses of non-reflecting practitioners. Problem resolution was viewed as "done and over" not to be "worried about." Only a major negative outcome triggered a reconsideration of the problem. The major focus of review was to resolve issues of fault, not to foster learning to strengthen one's decision-making strategies.

DISCUSSION

The contrasting nature of the reflecting and non-reflecting educators' problem solving supports Schön and other researchers (Cervero, 1990; Munby & Russell, 1989) who propose that practitioners who reflect-in-action use a profoundly different problem-solving process than those who are non-reflecting. The reflecting educators fluidly used Schön's reflection-in-action decision process, while the non-reflecting practitioners followed a sequential, technical rational model of problem resolution. Problem solving for the non-reflective practitioners had become a job to be performed by using the steps in the problem-solving process with as little personal involvement as possible. In contrast, the reflective practitioners were so actively involved in their decision-making process that the process was viewed as an ongoing cycle; an ever expanding learning process which builds upon past experiences.

Cooperative Extension's conceptual framework and culture have traditionally been grounded in the technical rational model of research and decision making. The transfer of the product from the technical rational research process to address clientele needs has characterized extension's nonformal education programming since its inception (Bennett, 1992). Within this model extension educators became "conduits through which information flowed from laboratory to the farm" (Winters, 1982, p. 11). Thus, the research-transfer model fostered and strengthened the validity for, and the use of, the technical rational decision-making process in field based extension educators (Bennett, 1992).

The non-reflective educators in the study used the learned rules of the technical rational decision model. Decision-making expertise resided more in the application of the process than in the outcome's success. The use of a process further distanced the non-reflective practitioner from the uniqueness of the presenting problem. Research of novice practice by cognitive psychologists describes a neophyte problem solver as applying learned rules to address surface elements of the problem regardless of what else is happening to influence the situation (Adelson, 1984; Benner, 1984; Itano, 1991). As Lesgold, et. al. (1988) describe, "Novices have learned the triggering rule of the most salient option, but do not have means for triggering the most subtle special cases or alternatives" (p. 324). Both novice and experienced, non-reflective extension educators relied upon the instrumental technical rational problem-solving process which appears similar to descriptions of novice's problem solving.

On the other hand, the reflective educators focused upon contextualizing a problem. The uniqueness of the context played a significant role in the decision process. Descriptive of cognitive psychologists' findings, expert's ability to tune their schemata to the specifics of a case permit them to test more completely whether what they have recalled is in fact correct for the specific situation (Adelson, 1984; Chi, Feltovich & Glaser, 1981; Lawrence, 1988; Lesgold, et. al., 1988). "Experts are willing to make continuous adjustments in their decision process and use feedback from the environment to avoid adherence to rigid decision strategies" (Wright & Bolger, 1992). Thus, the reflective educators in the study appear to have freed their decision process from the rigidity of the rule driven technical rational model.

The importance of the difference in the reflecting and non-reflecting practitioners' problem identification processes may be the most significant aspect in determining the effectiveness of problem outcomes. The study's findings strongly support the significant role problem definition plays in the reflecting educators' problem solving; however, it was found to play only a perfunctory role in the non-reflecting educators' problem resolution. This is consistent with cognitive psychology research which has described experts as: spending more time in the problem definition process, becoming personally involved with the problematic context, and contextualizing the problem situation far beyond its immediate parameters (Benner, 1984; Lawrence, 1988; Simon, 1973; Vost & Post, 1988).

In contrast, the findings indicate that the non-reflecting educators are triggered into a technical rational problem-solving sequence by their approach to problem definition. Similar to the cognitive psychology literature's description of novices, the non-reflecting educators approached problem framing by quickly isolating surface symptoms to define a problem, thus creating a well-formed structure that could be treated as an instrumental problem to be solved by applying the technical rational process (Chi, Feltovich & Glaser, 1981). Both novice and experienced, non-reflective educators appeared to be confined by the presenting facts of the situation and to using ritualized evidence gathering procedures.

Both cognitive psychology research and Schön focus upon problem solving as a key element of expert practice. As the study's reflective educators demonstrated, experts diagnose problematic situations while engaging in inquiry. Experts are led by their reaction to rethink and restructure their strategies of action, ways of framing the problem and invent new strategies on the spot (Cervero, 1990; Schön, 1987). In contrast, the non-reflective educators used an instrumental problem-solving process that relied upon alternatives being measured by their effectiveness in achieving a pre-established goal that had been determined outside of the context. The practitioner, not the contextual problem, determines the best "fit" to solve the problem by weighing the pros and cons of identified alternatives.

Schön's writings draw a clear distinction between reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Supportive of cognitive research, reflection-on-action played a significant role in the novice and experienced reflecting educators' decision process (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991; Sweller, 1988). The reflecting educators spoke of the ongoing reflection process, that occurs after a problem, as a vital learning mechanism that had great impact on improving future problem solving. Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) have proposed that nonexperts fail to learn from problematic situations by not pausing to reflect-on the specifics of the problematic situation. "In general, non-experts seem inclined toward a unidirectional process of do it and be done with it" (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991, p. 176), however, the expert pauses after solving a problem, seeking to extract generalizable knowledge from the experience.

The study found that not all experienced educators were using reflection-in-action, and that a novice reflecting educator exhibited true artistry in her use of it in resolving problems. This would seem to support Schön's (1987) hypothesis that reflection-in-action evolves from "competencies we already possess" (p. 32) or is a learned process. However, why some individuals do exhibit these competencies which the reflective practitioners, novice and experienced, clearly demonstrated is not adequately addressed in Schön's theory or in cognitive psychology research. It appears it is not experience alone that generates the emergence of reflection-in-action. "Expertise evolves and develops with experience but that experience can only contribute to expertise if practitioners are capable of learning from it" (Kennedy, 1987, p. 148).

CONCLUSION

The strongly held extension assumption that the technical rational decision model fosters expertise seems to be called into question by Schön, cognitive psychology research findings and this study's findings. If extension educators are to become expert decision makers, the organization is called upon to re-examine its assumptions about technical rationality, and the role of experience in the development of expertise.

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OLDER ADULT BASIC EDUCATION NEEDS AND ACTIVITIES FROM A DEVELOPMENTAL PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines development-related trigger events which lead older adults to participate in basic education and high school completion programs. Findings indicate that the periods " Continuity with Middle Age," "Early Transition," and "Revised Lifestyle" are rich in providing contexts that encourage participation, but that in the "Later Transition" and " Final Period," triggers fostering participation were not identified. On this basis, practitioners may identify particular older adult development-related needs to be served by basic education and high school completion programs.

INTRODUCTION

In Malcolm Knowles's third assumption about andragogy, he posits that "people become ready to learn something when they experience a need to learn it in order to cope more satisfyingly with real-life tasks or problems," (1980, p. 44) and that each developmental task produces a "readiness to learn" which at its peak presents a teachable moment This paper examines that assertion with older adults enrolled in basic education and high school completion programs by exploring the relationship between their involvement in learning activities and their place in the developmental framework.

According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census (1984), an estimated 29.6% of the population over 55 years of age have not completed 8th grade. Although 51% of the target adult basic education population are age 60 and above, comprising approximately 26.2 million older adults, only 7.4% of the total population served by adult basic education programs in 1986 were 60 and over, according to the U.S. Department of Education (1987). These data describe a level of educational attainment by older adults somewhat lower than the population as a whole, but a level of participation in basic education and high school completion programs considerably less than what might be expected when compared with the total population during a time of increasing demand for literacy proficiency in both work and leisure. One explanation for these data is that generic, "one size fits all" approaches to adult basic education and high school completion programs have been ineffective in reaching older members of the target population. In placing the basic education and high school completion needs within the developmental framework, this study provides a context in which to understand both articulated needs and educational responses.

This paper builds upon findings from two previous studies - one describing older adult educational needs and motivation to enroll in basic education and high school completion programs and their experience as students (Fisher, 1993b), the second describing a framework which divides developmental change in older adulthood into five periods: Continuity with Middle age, Early Transition, Revised Lifestyle, Later Transition, and Final Period (Fisher, 1993a). In the research being presented in this paper, older adult literacy and high school completion needs and activities will be placed within the developmental framework, providing answers to questions such as 1) how does life context influence participation in basic education or high school completion programs? 2) how do developmental events provide triggers for older adults to participate in basic education or high school completion programs? 3) how can practitioners in basic education and high school completion programs use this information to assist them with program marketing, student recruitment, curriculum development, and program evaluation?

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Despite broad awareness of the heterogeneity of the older adult population, much of the literature describing older adulthood views it as if it were a single lifestage; most of the familiar theories of human development fail to consider the possibility that developmental change may continue in a systematic fashion throughout older adulthood. Erikson (1950) and Havighurst (1952) are examples of this perspective. Peck (1956) amplifies Erikson's eighth stage by dividing it into two periods, each containing a series of stages. Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, and McKee claim that it is "an oversimplification to regard the entire span of years after age 50 or 65 as a single era. Given the lack of research data, we can only speculate about this concluding segment of the life cycle" (1978, p. 38). They suggest as an hypothesis dividing older adulthood into two sequential stages: late adulthood and late, late adulthood.

The view that older adulthood can be described in a single period has influenced the perception of adult learning among older adults. Among adult educators who have described the learning needs of older adults assuming a single developmental period are McClusky (n.d.), Hiemstra (1976), McDaniel (1984), McCoy (1977), and LeClerc (1985).

With the population of the United States living longer and living a larger proportion of their lives as older adults, earlier views of older adulthood may be inadequate for a present and future in which adults may live one-fourth or one-third of their entire lives as older adults. To posit that this period would be lived without developmental change would distinguish it from other periods of human life where change has been described in terms of stages, tensions, transitions, and other descriptors. Fisher's research (1993a) documents that older adulthood is punctuated by developmental change, more particularly by three periods of stability separated by two transitions. A brief summary of the characteristics of each period of Fisher's framework is contained in Figure 1.

FIGURE 1

CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENTAL PERIODS

1. Continuity with Middle Age
Retirement plans pursued
Middle age lifestyle continued
Other activities substituted for work

2. Early Transition
Involuntary transitional events
Voluntary transitional events
End of continuity with middle age

3. Revised Lifestyle
Adaptation to changes of early transition
Stable lifestyle appropriate to older adulthood
Socialization realized through age-group affiliation

4. Later Transition
Loss of health and mobility
Need for assistance and/or care
Loss of autonomy

5. Final Period
Adaptation to changes of later transition
Stable lifestyle appropriate to level of dependency
Sense of finitude, mortality

According to Aslanian and Brickell (1980), developmental changes serve as "trigger events" which lead to adult participation in educational activities or which surface learning needs to which the person may respond through either formal or informal learning activities. Can this assertion about adults be broadened to include older adults? Is there a linkage between an older adult's place in the developmental framework and his/her involvement in basic education or high school completion activities?

METHODOLOGY

To construct a framework to describe the developmental changes which occur among older adults at age 60 and above and to describe characteristics of each of the developmental periods identified, hour long interviews were conducted with 74 adults over age 60, 70% of whom were female. Ages ranged from 61 to 94; the mean age was 78. Five percent of those interviewed were black; the remainder were white. Most (78%) had been employed in nonprofessional occupations prior to retirement. Their mean level of educational attainment was 12th grade. The interview sites included two senior centers in an urban county and two senior centers and a nursing home located in adjacent counties which combined suburban and rural characteristics. Additional interviews were conducted at an adult learning center and in the residences of six older adults (Fisher, 1993a). In this study, qualitative data were gathered to create substantive theory about developmental change in older adulthood.

To gain an understanding of the participation of older adults in basic education and high school completion programs, data were gathered from 119 students over age 55 at 22 sites offering adult basic education and high school completion programs. The mean age of this group was 64. Of those interviewed, 45% were enrolled in adult basic education programs, 36% in GED, high school diploma, or high school completion programs, and 19% in other programs. Through the use of structured hour-long interviews, qualitative data were gathered to increase understanding about the participation of older adults in basic education and high school completion programs.

In the study being presented in this paper, data from the literacy study, especially that related to motivation and support, were analyzed using the characteristics of each period of the developmental framework as a tool to screen for needs and events which trigger participation in adult basic education and high school completion programs. In particular, the interviews of participants in the basic education and high school completion study were scrutinized to identify motivating rationales which may have been arisen from developmental needs or transitions. These educational activities have been organized according to the developmental period with which each is associated.

LITERACY ACTIVITIES WITHIN THE DEVELOPMENTAL FRAMEWORK

This study of development and education examined periods of stability and transition which occur in older adulthood in order to identify opportunities for change and growth which they provide.

CONTINUITY WITH MIDDLE AGE

Four major triggers occurred within this period whose characteristics identify the entry of adults into older adulthood: employment, retirement goals, opportunity, and support. For many persons, this period represented the time after retirement when retirement plans were pursued, when a middle age lifestyle was continued, and when other activities were substituted for work. For many in this study, however, the period represented a time of preparation for continued employment.

The first motivating trigger was employment. Approximately 24% of those interviewed were employed either full or part time. In addition, others were unemployed and were preparing to return to the workforce. Those enrolled in GED or high school completion programs were interested to secure an educational credential necessary to obtain a job. Many had been employed, but had been laid off due to plant closures and other factors beyond their control. Others worked for employers who had previously been willing to waive the requirement of a high school diploma for employment, but who were no longer willing to do so. Others were employed in positions where the demand for reading and writing skill had increased dramatically over time. One person spoke of his need to learn to write so that he could write contracts for the sales which he made; another spoke of his need to receive an education so that he could train others to do the work that he does. A cook at a nursing home described the introduction of written menus which she was unable to read. Still others had recently been divorced and, needing to secure employment, found they lacked the credentials to do so.

The second trigger was the achievement of retirement goals. One characteristic of the period, Continuity with Middle Age, is that it is the repository of retirement goals. When people describe their retirement plans, they usually describe this period. For a great many of the persons interviewed in this study, they described goals of eliminating the lifetime lack of basic skills which they had experienced. Their retirement goals contained two elements. One was the achievement of some level of proficiency in the use of the basic skills or reading and writing. Many had specific topics about which they wished to read, from the Bible to computers to menus; other simply wanted to be able to read in view of any eventuality: "when they put a paper in front of me, I want to be able to read and understand." Or "I'd like to get up and read straight across. Don't have to stop and spell, or ask somebody what it meant. I'd like to go and just read. It'd make me so happy." Some wanted to read travel brochures or newspapers. Some wanted to read instructions from their doctors; others wanted to read to their grandchildren. One woman wanted to write her life story.

Deep within the intent to achieve basic skill proficiency or an educational credential for many was a strong desire or sense of oughtness fueled by a lifetime of guilt, low self-esteem, and sense of failure. It was therefore high on their individual lists of unfinished business which must be completed during this life. In many cases, it was driven by a sense of stigma: persons were so embarrassed by their incomplete educations that they were unwilling to tell other family members of their participation in these programs, and indeed were unwilling to attend their own graduations.

For many, this life period provided time to participate and study which had not been available to them during their working and parenting years. Ironically, while they were employed, they believed that they had no need for further education. It was after the termination of employment, whether voluntarily or involuntarily, that they recognized the loss of work-related coping support. Many persons spoke of the various means they had used during their working years to have others perform reading and writing tasks for them. The end of employment also meant the loss of those services.

Support for participation was mixed. About 75% spoke of strong family support. But others spoke of spouses who tried to sabotage their participation, friends who said, "You are nuts!", and children who asked, "Why would an old lady like you go back to school? Why not stay home and baby sit for us?" A man voiced his disappointment as he spoke of his wife: "she never said I'm proud that you are going back to school or I think this is a good thing for you or nothin."

EARLY TRANSITION

The most common events initiating this first transition were the death of a spouse, the onset of ill-health, or the need to relocate. In addition to these involuntary events, others made personal decisions to aim their lifestyles in a new direction.

The major motivator during this period was the anticipated or present decline in the health of a spouse. In nearly every case, the spouse was the family member who had provided the literacy service - who read the mail and the newspaper, paid the bills, prepared any necessary correspondence, and interpreted important documents. One student was asked by his wife, "Who will take care of you when I'm gone?" Other spoke of spouses who were bedridden, terminally ill, or simply unable to perform these activities any longer.

Two other factors also contributed to the motivation which was born out of the early transition. One was the loss of literacy support through the death and relocation of friends and family members. Persons spoke of coping in earlier years principally through the efforts of an informal network of co-workers, family members, and friends. One aspect of the early transition was the continuing dissolution of that network.

In addition, persons voluntarily changed their lifestyles. For example, one gentleman received assistance from his wife reading menus, following roadmaps, and registering at hotels when they travelled. He lacked the reading skill to do any of these tasks. But his wife had lost interest in travelling and eating out. He was enrolled in an ABE program to enhance his reading skills in order to continue his interests individually.

REVISED LIFESTYLE

The revised lifestyle was characterized by the adaptation to the changes of the early transition, the development of a stable lifestyle appropriate to older adulthood, and socialization through age-group affiliation. These characteristics provided incentive for participation at three levels: the development of instrumental survival skills, the purposeful use of time, and the fulfillment of social needs.

Many widows and widowers, having experienced the death of the spouse who was the family reader, found themselves unable to obtain that service short of turning to a stranger. One woman said, "I am 73 years old and I should not have people reading my papers and letters to me. I'm getting tired of giving people my stuff and telling them to read it to me." Another spoke of having to hire someone to perform the service, and then complained about having to share private information with strangers. These and many others had a vision of independence and self-sufficiency that would be obtained only through the acquisition of reading and writing skill.

Often returning to school represented a constructive activity designed to redirect one's life after significant loss. Family members, friends, and counselors were all instrumental in leading newly widowed persons to programs as a way to reengage them with life. A mother was advised to come to school after all of her children left home. Some students spoke of it as therapy. One woman who had intruded into the affairs of her children said they admonished her to get a life! Her response was to enroll in a high school writing program. Whether the development of a skill or the establishment of self-confidence, the basic education and high school completion programs provided an important contribution to the adaptation of many to this period.

In all instances the educational activity was social; however, the degree to which the classes addressed social needs is subject to question. Students spoke affectionately of teachers, but they were less laudatory of other, especially younger, students. Some complained of their vulgar language and of their distracting topics of conversation. Some possessed the unfounded fear that younger students would laugh at them or make fun of them. Nearly all of those interviewed said that they came to the classes alone.

None of the persons interviewed possessed any of the characteristics associated with the Later Transition, such as loss of health, mobility, and autonomy, and the need for assistance and/or care, or any of the characteristics of the Final Period, such as adaptation to the changes of the later transition, a lifestyle appropriate to the level of one's dependency, and a sense of the immanence of death.

ADDITIONAL THEMES

Three additional themes related to older adulthood but not associated with a particular developmental period were identified in the literature. These are grandchildren, reflection, and goals.

The role of grandchildren in the participation of their grandparents was prominent in the interview data. One man who spoke of how he had survived in industry for decades without admitting his inability to read by using clever coping devices told how his grandson came to him with a book in hand and climbed onto his knee, handed him the book, and asked him to read it to him. He said, "I couldn't do it, and it hurt me so bad I cried." He credits that event with getting him back to school. A woman described her grandchildren as poor students who received poor grades. She wagered with them that she would get better grades in school than they in order to encourage them. She also admitted that her wager inspired her participation during those periods when she was tempted to drop out. Another spoke of how her grandchildren helped her with words she didn't know. Others spoke of grandchildren who had completed college and who were proud of their grandparents's efforts to complete their education.

Most participants in the study in their responses reflected on the meaning context which surrounded learning to read or completing high school. Their activity represented the achievement of lifelong goals, the fulfillment of a lifelong obligation, the increase in confidence and self-esteem, and the affirmation of a survival despite the lack of basic skills or credentials. One man had owned several businesses; his children threw a great party when he got his high school diploma, both to celebrate his present accomplishment and to recognize the successes which occurred despite the absence of a high school credential. Another student spoke of his last salary and then prided himself, "Not bad for a third grade dropout."

But the pride in accomplishment was tempered by the memory of job applications refused, promotions passed over, always having to apply for entry-level positions, and opportunities which had eluded them. The recollection of the absence of pleasures great and small - having a driver's license, choosing a meal from a menu oneself, reading the Bible aloud in church - made the reflection bitter sweet, as if newfound skills amplified the pain of their absence.

As people reflected on their present purpose within their respective life contexts, nearly all of the motivators could be drawn together within two concepts: one is independence, the other fulfillment. For some, mainly but not entirely those learning basic skills, the drive was to be independent, to develop and maintain a level of competency which allowed them to perform functions which each had identified - read the mail, read the Bible, etc. For others including both basic skills and high school completion students, the drive was to fulfill a lifetime goal. Learning to read or receiving a high school diploma completed an important element of life's agenda, keeping promises, and lifting a stigma.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND CONCLUSION

With a more carefully focused approach designed especially for the older target population, educators can develop programs which address the unique literacy and schooling needs of older adults and thereby involve greater numbers of this population in basic education and educational completion programs. In instances such as preparation for employment, however, older learners hold much in common with younger learners.

Findings of this study indicate that increasing levels of basic skills and education credentials will assist older adults maintain their independence, increase their self respect, and enhance their personal fulfillment. These objectives can be achieved by programs which recognize the development-related needs and tasks of older students and assist students to perform those particular tasks. Older student participation may be stimulated by the use of instructional materials which are particularly relevant to the older student's particular instrumental goals. Practitioners can also develop marketing and recruitment approaches which recognize the developmental context from which students' needs are derived and tailor programs to address those needs, thereby capitalizing on a student's intrinsic motivation for participation and retention. However, high levels of self-consciousness about educational deficits may require program marketers to focus on the broad benefits to be gained, rather than the deficits to be erased.

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REDIRECTING RESEARCH AND PRACTICE TO MEET THE CHANGING CONTEXT OF WORKPLACE LITERACY

Kevin J. Freer, Verna Terminello, Robin Clossman-Wright

ABSTRACT

The changing context of workkplace literacy requires an approach that links the theory and practice of authentic literacy learning. Trraditional worksite ABE\GED programs and functional context approaches fail to meet the literacy needs of employees on the job and in training. Critical elements of programs which are more authentic, holistic, and learner-centered are analyzed: 1) authentic settings on the job, 2) organizational needs assessments, 3) authentic skills assessments for employees, 4) curriculum as literacy events, and 5) trainng. Suggestions for setting an agenda to redirect research and practice are made that take into account the skills needed for the changing context of the workplace.

INTRODUCTION

Adult educators and Human Resource Development professionals have taken various approaches to setting up workplace literacy programs with employers. These approaches range from bringing in outside sources to set up Adult Basic Education/General Educational Development (ABE/GED) worksite programs (Askov & Van Horn, 1993), to implementing customized workplace programs that focus on functional context (Philippi, 1991). Yet, companies still debate whether to begin a workplace literacy program because the rewards have not proven to be great enough to justify the expense of hiring teachers and paying employees for "non-productive" time.

Our research and practice have allowed us to be involved with programs which are more authentic, holistic, and learner-centered. These programs are participatory, and empower participants (Jurmo, 1994) to become flexible learners who can also become better employees who fit in with the demands of their changing workplaces. These programs support the work environment, training, participants, and the organization, and can more easily be justified to employers whose concerns are still with the bottom line. Such programs are set up so that literacy learning is integrated within what workers actually do on their jobs.

TRADITIONAL APPROACHES TO WORKPLACE LITERACY

ABE/GED AND GENERAL SKILLS

Traditionally, ABE/GED worksite programs focus on helping employees to learn basic reading, writing, and math and eventually pass a high school equivalency test. While research on these programs shows that individual employees gain self-esteem, reduce absenteeism, and generally have better attitudes as a result of passing the GED test, the relation of their newly acquired skills to the job has not been clearly documented (Sticht, 1987). In fact, in some studies, measures such as scrap rate and job errors have actually increased after these programs have been implemented (Opliger, J., 1995). Research on learning transfer has demonstrated that learning more general literacy skills does not necessarily translate to increased job knowledge or skills (Sticht, 1987).

These programs are difficult to "sell" to businesses and are best handled by the adult education programs in the public schools, the local community college or vocational school. If done at the site of the business , ABE/GED programs should be referred to as worksite literacy programs rather than as workplace because they do not directly relate to job skills. Practitioners in ABE/GED often follow models of "successful" programs using standardized testing, commercially published materials, and direct methods of teaching. Critical decisions made by literacy experts for planning programs are based on participant test scores, availability of materials, and availability of teachers (Askov and Van Horn, 1993). Employers are often not willing to fund such programs. While employers recognize the importance of an altruistic, "feel good" program, they cannot always justify a budget to fund workers off their jobs on "non-productive time".

FUNCTIONAL CONTEXT APPROACHES

Functional context approaches, on the other hand, tailor literacy learning specifically to the business and its particular mix of workers with an emphasis on the specific requirements of individual workers (Mikulecky, L. et al., 1987; Philippi, 1991). These individuals are also tested using standardized instruments. Lessons are designed using scenarios that simulate actual work events and participants use work materials to enhance their reading, writing, and math skills. Practitioners using this approach provide a functional context needed for improved job performance. Often, practitioners run out of ideas for teaching and resort to commercial materials that focus on more generic math or reading on the job in some field related to the participant's job classification. And, often, workers are bored reading and writing about their jobs especially when they are seasoned employees who have been in the same job for years.

Program decisions are made by literacy experts and managers from a top down model based on a Literacy Task Analysis to determine the reading, writing, and math requirements of a job. The job is then broken into discreet skills, and then emphasized also by direct teaching methods. While advocates of this approach say that participants learn the skills necessary to function in the workplace, the emphasis is still on individual job skills (Jurmo, 1993) practiced in contrived settings. Even though participants practice the cognitive skills expected on the job, they are in classrooms, and not necessarily with the people they really work with. Their new skills are often not supported in authentic contexts.

MEETING THE NEEDS OF THE CHANGING CONTEXT OF WORKPLACE LITERACY

These approaches then fail to meet the literacy needs of employees engaged in the wider array of activities in the workplace that go beyond their individual jobs. Employees who must be in classroom training for compliance to regulatory agencies such as OSHA or HUD, or who must participate in "world class strategies" (*America 2000*, 1991) such as quality initiatives (TQM, or ISO 9000), Total Productive Maintenance(TPM), Just-in-Time (JIT), visual factory systems, or teamwork are not being supported with the above approaches. Workers who now have added responsibilities such as: "use of technically sophisticated equipment, and collection and analysis of product or service quality statistics by teams or departments to measure cycle time, scrap, reworked materials, consistent product or service quality, and customer satisfaction" (Philippi, 1994) can still not be expected to have the skills they need when they have been through one of these traditional workplace literacy programs.

These programs then, have failed in their responsibilities for both individual and organizational development (Gilley & Eggland, 1989). We question the efficiency and effectiveness of the approaches that are based on current research and practice of ABE/GED preparation and the traditional functional context approach to workplace literacy. What is necessary is an approach that links the theory and practice of authentic literacy learning in the workplace and that takes into consideration the skills needed for a changing, "world class" workplace.

AUTHENTIC WORKPLACE LITERACY LEARNING

On the Job. Primarily, what is lacking in both the current literature and practice is an approach to literacy instruction that supports employees in authentic settings, on the job. Authentic learning is real world, contextualized learning (Herman, Aschbacher, & Winters, 1992) where workers are "likely to apply what they learn" (Knox, 1986, p.67). Workers cannot always apply skills learned in a classroom settings to actual job practices. Nor can employers always afford to pull workers off their jobs to participate in classroom training. Instead of using scenarios to teach basic skills, we believe skills can be learned on the job as the tasks of the job demand, with minimal classroom intervention and minimal direct teaching. Decision-making for such programs should be participatory, involving workers, supervisors, trainers, and managers (Sperlazi & Jurmo, 1994).

Organizational Needs Assessment. While traditional approaches begin with standardized testing, we advocate authentic assessment (Waugh, 1991), beginning with an Organizational Needs Assessment (ONA) to include interviews with focus groups of stakeholders who can identify the needs of employees in the changing workplace. Questions about quality initiatives, TPM programs, and other "world class strategies" should be asked to determine the vision of the company for the future, to determine the "what will be?" After the ONA is conducted, a Literacy Task Analysis should be done, but should be expanded. The Literacy Task Analysis Expanded or LTAE should include observations of teams, if they are already formed, of classroom training that all employees are expected to understand, and of other jobs employees will be cross-trained to do. The LTAE will help determine the "what should be?" (Terminello, Wulfhorst, and Freer, 1993).

Authentic Skills Assessments for Employees. Practitioners should then develop authentic assessment instruments (Herman, Aschbacher, & Winters, 1992) which specifically address the "what will be?" and the "what should be?" workplace requirements and not just individual job nor general skills. For example, if employees are expected to write a certain kind of log, they should be tested on their ability to do so, not on general writing skills. If they are expected to do metric conversions, they should be tested on metric conversions, not on generic math skills. Employees can be identified who can perform these skills independently, who may need minimal help, and who may need some classroom instruction and perhaps tutoring.

Curriculum as Literacy Events. Curriculum can be developed to address these needed skills for the specific group of employees identified for a minimal amount of classroom time. After that, lower skilled employees can receive continued support from their team members, team leaders or supervisors as they implement TPM, or other programs, and as they collaboratively participate in authentic "literacy events" (Heath, 1992) such as writing logs, status reports, charting and graphing or practicing metric conversions.

Training. What is also lacking in both the current literature and practice is an approach to literacy instruction that supports employees in training classes. Many trainers are content experts who know little about teaching adults with limited reading, writing, and problem solving skills and do not understand teaching reading in the content areas (Vacca and Vacca,1989). And, many training materials are not always user-friendly to all participants. The materials are not well-written, organized, nor formatted. (Sticht & Mc Donald, 1992). Often the background knowledge of the learners is not considered, and materials are leveled by mis-using readability formulas (Doak, Doak, & Root, 1985). Also, many trainers have limited experience teaching front line employees; training materials have generally been written for managers, and trainers only have experience doing management training.

Practitioners often assume that individuals who go through training classes will understand and be able to apply their new knowledge and skills to become better workers. A high body count in classes, or a good evaluation of the class no longer can be equated with successful training. Practitioners cannot assume they can predict comprehension of training materials because they know reading levels of participants and materials. Practitioners of adult education owe participants, organizations, and regulatory agencies more than just body counts or assumptions about understanding and learning. Rather, there must be behavior changes as the result of training classes, and training must be cost effective by showing a payback to the organization.

REDIRECTING RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Previous attempts to improve models of workplace literacy based on general skills in ABE/GED programs or job specific skills within a functional context approach have failed to meet the needs of a changing workplace. What is important now is an understanding of the changing context of the workplace. What new approaches can respond to the workplace literacy needs for employees on their jobs and in training events? How can adult educators and trainers best integrate basic skills instruction in order to redesign curriculum and instruction to support employees on the job and in training?

The changing context of the workplace also suggests implications for further inquiry in such areas as organizational needs assessments, learner assessments, curriculum development, teaching strategies, and program evaluations. What methods should determine literacy requirements of workers who must be multiskilled? How should on-going needs assessments of individual learners be conducted? What instruments and strategies should be developed to assess learner effectiveness in a training context? How will impact on the job be evaluated? How can adult educators provide evidence of a return on investment for their workplace literacy efforts?

New roles for trainers and literacy specialists must be developed as they learn to collaborate in supporting literacy for employees engaged in multiskilled jobs and training. Literacy educators, trainers, and other instructors will have to assess employees' changing literacy needs within the context of training episodes, effectively facilitate learning on the job, and evaluate program effectiveness. The steps necessary to train trainers and literacy experts must be documented in order to be transferable to different settings. What must be included in a training model on how to initiate an authentic workplace literacy program?

Finally, a program planning and implementation model is needed in order to benefit a variety of workplace settings. Adult educators and HRD professionals must document the program implementation process. What planning model would serve this purpose? How should such an implementation plan be designed for these workplace literacy programs? Linkages between research and practice need to be strengthened in planning and implementing authentic workplace literacy programs. The content and conduct of each should reflect models of participatory action research (Brooks & Watkins, 1995; Sperlazi & Jurmo, 1994).

In conclusion, we believe an authentic workplace literacy program differs from traditional approaches in several ways. Assessment of learners is holistic and context specific, never standardized, and is only done after an Organizational Needs Assessment points to a "literacy problem" rather than other problems such as work flow, climate, or the need for technical or more effective on the job training. Curriculum development is an on-going process, where authentic literacy events take the place of "lessons". Training classes are recognized as another context for literacy learning as we use content area reading approaches in the classroom. Program evaluation is ongoing and becomes the responsibility of all participants, not just managers who make decisions about program funding. And finally, increasing the literacy skills of employees becomes a shared responsibility of the entire organization.

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EXPECT THE UNEXPECTED: THE RESULTS AND CHALLENGES OF INTRODUCING TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING IN ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Antonia (Toni) Gammage

ABSTRACT

This paper describes facets of Mezirow's transformative education theory as applied in an experimental plan towards a practical interpretation of critical consciousness. Critical questioning following student-generated content was applied at two Adult Basic Education (ABE) sites–the Indian Center and Francis House Homeless Mission. The plan focused on identifying sociolinguistic meaning perspectives through oral language, rather than written efforts, due to the perceived strengths of students in discourse, amid a variety of cultural and socioeconomic backgrounds of students and instructor. Factors conducive to the successful outcome of transformative education in ABE include student-centered issues, a safe environment, a certain measure of distance from disorienting dilemmas,and the ability to frame experiences in the abstract. Critical questioning was the key means for generating reflective discussion leading to transformative learning.

INTRODUCTION

The core of transformative education theory requires that adults are able to make clear their meaning perspectives, to reflect and revise beliefs, and often make a behavioral change. In order to provide activities which resonate with this theory, an instructor must be able to do the same with her or his own meaning perspectives. Jack Mezirow (1991) defines meaning perspectives as "sets of habitual expectation" (p.4). How open are we as teachers to relinquishing expectations of how we teach, or how our students are supposed to act, so we can introduce transformative learning into the classroom? How does an instructor plan for the serendipitous and sometimes shocking experiences, events and emotions that erupt during the process of making significant changes in meaning perspectives or expectations? When trying out critical questioning as a process of transfomative education in an ABE classroom the title phrase, "expect the unexpected" suggests that the instructor needs to remember to stay loose when students present opposite opinions, listen for meaning in their discourse, check on personal paradigms, and hold firmly onto the goals of empancipatory education: to help students become aware of unconscious personal and socially-constructed constraints on their thoughts and feelings, with access to alternative perspectives so they may learn to think, feel and act in a way that is self-directed, growth-oriented and uniquely their own (Mezirow, 1981).

The environment of teaching ABE is composed of relationships of individuals in a classroom; this group dynamic calls attention to the meaning perspective termed "sociolinguistic" by Mezirow (1991). Views of the world in this perspective include expectations about (past or current) language, social and cultural relationships, religion, politics, education, economics, etc. The hegemonic habit of labeling these dominant schemes "norms" also sends a message about power or whose perspective or interests are being served; these linguistic ploys are ripe ground for classroom dialogue and debate. The barrage of information through televised, electronic and print media that deluges us daily also offers examples for examining subjective use of language in perpetuating expectaions which evolve into beliefs, and eventually meaning schemes. Perhaps it is an understatement to say that confronting these time-honored assumptions is difficult, and for some adults, impossible at certain times in their lives even under the established "right" theoretical conditions. Each new class offers the potential for a transformative journey among both teacher and students, perhaps occurring simultaneously but on different planes through an emotional minefield, or on similar levels through a field of daisies.

TRANSFORMATIVE EDUCATION THEORY

Mezirow (1991) defines transformative learning (TL) as "reflection that leads to awareness that assumptions are distorted, inauthentic, or otherwise unjustified. TL results in new or transformed meaning perspectives or meaning schemes" (p.108). Meaning perspectives involve the meanings we have assigned to epistemological, sociolinguistic, and psychological assumptions under the influence of socio-cultural forces and the unconscious psyche; meaning schemes are the beliefs that arise from the meaning perspectives. Mezirow (1981) argues that the process of transformation belongs to adulthood because it serves to emancipate the individual "from libidinal, institutional or environmental forces which limit our options and rational control over our lives, but have been taken for granted as beyond human control. Emancipation occurs through insights gained through critical self-awareness and recognition of the correct reasons for the problems. Mezirow (1991) states that "awareness of why we attach the meanings we do to reality, especially to our roles and relationships may be the most significant distinguishing characteristic of adult learning" (p.11).

Activities which may induce TL include: critical assessment or questioning, problem-posing, and dialogue in an atmosphere of support and equality so learners may develop trust for sharing experiences and become open to new perspectives. Specific strategies are advocated such as journaling, or using case studies, biographies, and metaphors (Cranton, 1992), which presuppose a higher order or cognitive development; however, due to the multilayered levels of literacy apparent in ABE and the hesitancy of ABE learners toward writing, this plan instead utilized their well-developed verbal skills and the security of a familiar core group of classmates. TL is a cognitive process swaddled in the warmth of human interaction.

PURPOSES

This instructional plan was based on one of Mezirow's (1981) ten phases of conducting a critical assessment of internalized role assumptions. The purposes synchronize with Mezirow's (1994) assertions that "transformative action may address change in oneself and in the way one learns, in that education for communicative competence involves cultivating the learner's ability to negotiate meanings and purposes instead of passively accepting the social realities defined by others" (p.225). The essence of this plan centered on the creation an environment where adults may feel comfortable in articulating their beliefs, clarify their awareness of sociocultural influences through dialogue with others, assert their control, and act in a manner that helps themselves and others.

BACKGROUND OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Interplay among three factors in ABE–the setting, students and instructors–creates a unique environment as well as positive prospects for developing TL. Of particular importance in the setting are the uneven structure of ABE classes, diversity of students, and limitations on instructors. The structure of ABE classes is haphazard due to the designation of open enrollment. Generally, there is a lack of consistent attendance, varying demographics and levels of ability among students, different choices of content being studied, and the change of group personality with the comings and goings of students into the program. Diversity of students includes not only demographics such as race, gender, age, class, etc., but also current life events. Sporadic attendance is due to interruptive life circumstances such as pregnancy, family illness, violence within personal realms, incarceration, volatile relationships with significant others, temporary employment, and the equally haphazard system of mandated attendance by social service agencies. Any of these incidents added to the stresses of everyday life may cause adults in ABE to move less smoothly toward integrating transformation in a formal educational environment. Yet adult learners are moving through this staggering array of disorienting dilemmas in their personal lives. Will TL activities enhance their progress?

Autonomy in the classroom and the emphasis on meeting General Educational Development Tests series (GED) requirements, rather than the instructor's standards are positive aspects of ABE classes. The perspective distances between students and instructors creates difficulties in the translation of meaning schemes. ABE instructors who are interested in generating transformative education need to recognize the feelings, beliefs, and conditions which learners bring to class and which keep them away. Professional and informal consultations with all involved persons in ABE are invaluable in providing pertinent insights into the students' ways of life. Therefore, the amount of control the instructor has over classroom dynamics may be limited, but not completely absent from this unique learning context. An instructor may take the plunge of relinquishing authority to establish a student-centered focus but she also checks her parachute before boarding the plane--in other words, she plans.

EXPERIMENTAL INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN FOR INTRODUCING TRANSFORMATIVE LEARNING IN ABE

The critical questioning process employed here should be viewed in the context of a beginning work-in-progress: a long-range TL plan for adult learners. The diversity of ABE classes may match the diversity of methods being employed by intrepid instructors ready to facilitate this dimension of adult learning; each new experiment informs another. The objectives of this plan are to: 1) utilize critical questioning to develop discussions on student-generated issues to raise critical consciousness about socio-cultural influences on their lives; 2) foster peer teaching and open up dialogues among students by articulating, comparing and contrasting personal experiences and meaning schemes; and 3) precipitate critical reflection about meaning perspectives. As adults, it may be the first time in formal education that someone has asked them what they think, or valued their knowledge as an important part of the curriculum, or utilized their experiential learning to help someone else. How would they respond to this formal recognition of their inherent power?

Content followed student-generated issues. Students were queried: "What is important in your life?" To my surprise students at the Indian Center responded similarly with issues related to concern about different forms of violence ranging from personal abuse to street assaults to gang activity to military action and war. Brief articles from local newspapers and popular magazines provided personal interest stories corresponding to student experiences. The primary role of the instructor in this endeavor is to provide opportunities for students to become aware of meaning perspectives and develop new perspectives. To accomplish this, the instructor needs to "research" the students as Shor (1992) describes "by finding out what students know, speak, experience, and feel as starting points from which an empowering curriculum may be developed" (p.202). TL is uncharted territory for teachers and students alike.

Critical questioning of unstated assumptions was the preferred method for commencing TL. Use of questions, reflection and dialogue became the primary methods. Three types of reflection covered were content (what), process (how), and premise (why). Establishing the student-centeredness of this plan is crucial. The first pivotal task was to open up a dialogue on issues students are concerned about or simply to ask about their opinions and experiences in relation to a topic. This was best done in pairs or groups so that the students are able to take advantage of more viewpoints. The following questions were adapted from Mezirow (1991) and enhanced by Shor (1992). These questions may be used with an issue generated from students or any ABE/GED content area topic. I have retained Mezirow's division among the categories of content, process, and premise because these worked very well as a sequential process for both cognitive and reflective development. Overlap of the questions is unavoidable, yet (for the most part) the student discussion seemed to progress naturally through this order of questions with little prompting from the instructor--actually it was all I could do to keep up with the fast pace of dialogue. So it was not necessary to use all these questions; these are simply cues for students to reflect, discuss, write about, and hopefully retain for future use in their busy lives.

CRITICAL QUESTIONING PLAN

Content Questions
What is important to you?
What is ____________________?
What do you know about ________________?
Would would you like to know about ________________?
What does ______________ mean to you?
Where do you get your information on __________________?
Did you think about __________________differently in the past?
What is good ______________?
What is the opposite of good ________________?

Process Questions
How do you find out about ________________?
How does _________________ feel to you?
How has __________________ affected you?
How do you manage ________________ now?
How did your family manage ________________ in the past?
How do you family and friends manage ________________ now?
Who is involved in __________________?
How would different kinds of individuals or groups view __________? What would you like a textbook on this topic to cover?
If _________________ is a big issue in your life, why do you think it isn't addressed in the GED textbooks, or on TV?
Who do you think controls the information on ________________?
Whose interests are being served by the status quo (the way things are now)?

Premise Questions
Why do you think this ________________ is important to you?
Where do you think this belief comes from?
What did you do about it?
What would you like to do about it?
Does it have to be this way?
What would you change about ___________________?
How? What resources would you need? Who could work with you on this plan? Where would you start?
What if?

How does one plan for the students' reaction in TL? The experiential knowledge and strong verbal skills they brought with them into my classroom provided a sturdy basis from which to build TL. During discussions the instructor responds as a chameleon–keeping the same shape, yet altering hues to connect with the learners, and moving fast to keep up with the outpouring of experiences. Their already strong verbal skills were further enhanced as powerful voices emerged in later discussions. Opinions generated from life experiences were articulated and assigned meaning as I questioned them further; everyone participated. In the days following introduction of the critical questioning process, students initiated discussion on our topic before I had planned to start, traded experiences and insights one-to-one in large group discussion, suggested writing group poems about the issue, moved physically closer together and closer to the flipchart, wrote unassigned essays related to the topic, although resistance to writing remained intact for most of the students.

In addition to the integrated evaluation activities mentioned above, direct questions were used to evaluate dialogue efforts, including: What was interesting today? What was boring? What did you like about the discussion? What are some questions you have about __________? How did other students views help you? Why is it important to discuss this in class? Both students and instructor need to review questions such as these for reflection and revision of instructional plans. I was able to adapt the information rendered in discussions for use in guiding the students' academic plans since I was more aware of their interests and perspectives. I interpreted their enthusiasm for dialogue as the invaluable capacity to be ready for transformative learning.

Why is it that some adults manage TL and others do not? Is it resistance or an inability to manaTL because of other reasons? Are there additional conditions or skills that require our observance? In an adult environment TL requires reflection or viewing experiences in retrospect with the advantages of a 20-20 clarity offered by hindsight. Therefore, a measure of time and space away from the center of experience is necessary to abstractly recreate events. One of the conditions for TL may be the need for an individual's development beyond the survival level of Maslow's (1970) hierarchy which lists the essential sequential human needs of: survival; security; love, affection and belonging; esteem needs; and the need for self actualization (p.28) Mezirow (1981) cites Paulo Freire (1971) who denotes progression beyond this need as part of the level of consciousness required for TL (p.19). I propose that some adults may be so caught up in their personal histories--preoccupied to the point of obsession--about concrete survival and security problems such as the homeless parents concerned about finding housing for their families, men and women facing impending sentences of incarceration, or welfare-dependent mothers intent on finding employment--have not developed the time and space away from a traumatic situation. ABE classrooms are filled with many adults who dealing with situations similar to those cited above. How severely disorienting are dilemmas if these situations continue to occur? Adults in ABE classes deal with these life-changing issues both on a consistent basis or at best, sporadically as their circumstances interfere with attendance. Adapting student-centeredness in ABE classes necessitates attention to the socio-economic background of students and respect for their daily struggles which may impede the development of TL at this time in their lives. Perhaps it is an oversimplication to say Freire's success with Brazilian peasants may be due to two key factors of TL: focused democratic leadership and group cohesiveness--of which the peasants had both. My ABE students at the Francis House Homeless Mission had neither.

At the Francis House Homeless Mission it was extremely difficult to develop a dialogue (beyond basic needs) about overarching abstract issues such as economics, or politicized family values. The students argued vehemently with each other over the importance of their concerns and viewed their disagreement as "the problem with others in society" rather than as a generally divisive issue among diverse groups in a social relationship. ABE students at the Indian Center were able to participate verbally in the activities, yet occasionally there were be a regressive incident where the adult was thrown back into the survival or security level of Maslow's hierarchy. These occurrences obviously deflected the student's interest in discussion. Emotions run high at this level of the hierarchy.

Another factor impacting success is the diversity of students' experiences. Aside from being unable to find a unified generative theme as we experienced at the Mission, in contrast, students at the Indian Center were able to find common ground for discussing violence, yet there were specific issues such as domestic abuse and teenage crime that divided the group's focus.

CONCLUSION

Newman (1994) cites Mezirow's (1991) argument that perspective transformation will get the learner to the starting line, but that we will have to rely on a kind of faith that some larger change will come about after that. TL theory--and adult educators--can promise only to help the first step of emancipatory education that leads to personal transformation. Although this learning plan was intended to plant seeds for further development of TL in the future, the preliminary yield was immense. The experiences and knowledge of the learners were honored and the instructor was rewarded with the students' trust and eagerness to engage in critical dialogue.

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NURTURING DEMOCRACY BY SUPPORTING PLANNERS' LEARNING: INSIGHTS FROM STUDIES OF COGNITION

Abney V. Gleespen

To nurture substantive democracy, a responsible educator should advocate a process which helps planners to *learn* about situations that are relevant to stakeholders' interests, and *act* consistently with their learning. Studies of cognition suggest that non-linearity, activity, holism, problem finding and opportunities for situated learning are essential attributes of such a process. Further research is needed to determine how contextual factors affect planners' learning.

Cervero and Wilson (1994) have argued that educators should nurture a "substantively democratic process" through which stakeholders' interests can be represented effectively. They have considered the necessary dimensions of such a process in light of theories about power relations, but have said that their work is not a "complete account of planning practice" (1994, p. 11). This paper considers the necessary dimensions of a substantively democratic process in light of research on human cognition. It argues that a planner's ability to represent interests effectively depends in part on the planner's ability to learn about matters that are relevant to stakeholders' interests. Such learning may entail encounters with new persons, tasks, objects, environments and other aspects of situations or it may entail the reassessment of past experience. Attributes of the planning process can influence a planner's ability to learn. Learning, by itself, will matter little if planners cannot *act* on what they learn, however. Thus a substantively democratic planning process must be a process which helps planners to learn and to act consistently with their learning.

This paper is concerned primarily with learning in the course of planning at a micro level, where planners make decisions about contents, activities and materials for individual courses or single sessions (Sork & Buskey, 1986). But decisions at higher levels clearly can and do shape micro level processes. For example, many educational administrators who delegate decisions about content details to instructional developers or teachers nevertheless set limits as to overall program designs, planning deadlines and planning methods. By default, if not by intent, they influence whether planners will be able to learn and act consistently with their learning at the micro level. But learning in the course of planning should not be left to chance. Rather, a responsible educator must *advocate* a learning process, in order to nurture substantive democracy.

ATTRIBUTES OF A PROCESS WHICH SUPPORTS LEARNING

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) have described two models of planning and production based on protocol analyses of writing: a knowledge-*transforming* model which supports learning, and a knowledge-*telling* one which does not. I have drawn upon additional studies in various disciplines—art, music, medicine, criminal justice, electronics troubleshooting, iron working and others—to develop models of planning and production that are applicable to adult work in general. The knowledge-transforming model, thus elaborated, is a model of the type of process which educators should advocate, I believe. The knowledge-transforming model has the following attributes:

Non-Linearity

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) describe planners as working in two figurative "problem spaces." In the first problem space, planners develop their ideas regarding subject matters such as race relations, addictions, the meaning of work or the nature of learning. Fundamentally, in the first problem space, planners work out answers to the question, "What do I (presently) believe about the subject at hand?" In the second problem space, planners develop ways to represent their beliefs in the production of things such as artworks, novels and adult education programs. The second problem space is where educational planners work out answers to questions that Tyler (1949) has posed and that, Cervero and Wilson (1994, p. 20) say, a responsible planner must address—for example, "How should educational experiences be organized?" The two problem spaces are conceptually distinct but the results of problem solving in either space can influence actions and outcomes in the other. Beliefs influence production goals and methods initially. Efforts to solve problems related to fine details of production—how to word an introductory paragraph, for example—can generate new beliefs. Alterations in belief can spur production changes, in turn.

The "back-and-forth *process*" described above is what enables better practitioners to learn and to produce better products or outcomes, Scardamalia and Bereiter suggest (1991, p. 182). Other studies in many different domains (e.g., Getzels & Csikszentmihalyi, 1976; Hayes, 1989; Keller & Keller, 1993; Weisberg, 1993) similarly suggest that continuing revision of beliefs, purposes and methods is central to the work and learning of better practitioners. In contrast, practitioners who become committed to one set of ideas and behaviors and do not change learn less and perform less well (e.g., Carey & Flower, 1989; Lesgold & Lajoie, 1991).

Classical planning models in education (e.g., Tyler, 1949) are highly linear. Planners are to identify needs, then specify objectives and other details of program designs, then develop program contents, activities and materials. If the content which emerges during program development is at odds with pre-set objectives, planners are to change the content—not the objectives. In contrast, the studies cited above suggest that an educational planning process should encourage planners to revise objectives and other design components as insights arise in the course of program development.

Activity

Caffarella (1994) and Cervero and Wilson (1994) have described extrinsic forces such as snowstorms, budget cuts and the exercise of power by institutional leaders, that may compel change in planning. The studies reported above make clear that productive activity itself—the dialectic between person and produced object—may spur change. Better practitioners may formulate plans of action to accomplish certain purposes but "knowledge as organized for a particular task can never be sufficiently detailed, sufficiently precise, to anticipate exactly the conditions or results of actions" (Keller & Keller, 1993, p. 127). Better practitioners make provisional decisions or leave problematic details unspecified, therefore. They undertake the production, and use the productive activity and emerging product as the basis for effective decision making with regard to problematic points. Schön (1983) has termed such behaviors *reflection-in-action*.

Behaviors of better practitioners may be viewed as adaptations that circumvent the limits of human ability, allowing the practitioners to attain higher levels of performance than would be possible otherwise (Holyoak, 1991; Salthouse, 1991). Studies of cognition suggest that humans are adept at making sense of experience, and adept at rendering local decisions about concrete problems based on experience—but *not* adept at executing long chains of abstract reasoning (Hunt, 1991). Production creates experience. Production helps practitioners to exploit their cognitive proficiencies while circumventing their cognitive limitations. Thus an educational planning process should encourage planners to undertake production with partial or provisional designs. Such a process would be unlike classical approaches that require educators to "plan" everything before they can "do" anything.

Holism

Scardamalia and Bereiter (1991) describe as "knowledge-telling" the process by which a less skillful writer drops items of content one after another into a composition without attending to the emerging whole. The items are drawn from whatever reservoir of knowledge the writer possesses at the start and are not reconsidered or revised in the process of writing. Better writers, on the other hand, consider items in *relation* to each other. Studies (e.g., Emerson, 1991; Keller & Keller, 1993; Lesgold & Lajoie, 1991; Lesgold, Rubinson, Feltovich, Glaser, Klopfer, & Wang, 1988) suggest that such holis-

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tic thinking is essential to good practice in any domain. Good practitioners are able to understand things individually—what they are, what they *must* be—because they understand relations among things. Understanding things individually, in turn, helps them fit things together into harmonious wholes. Thus, an educational planning process should encourage planners to deal with related program elements in a holistic—not piecemeal—fashion.

Problem Finding

Problem finding is considered "an important component of the model of the learner within the critical viewpoint" (Cervero, 1988, p. 41). In cognitive science studies, active reconstruction or finding of problems has been associated with greater learning (e.g., Chi, Bassok, Reimann, & Glaser, 1989). Problem finding extends to both means and ends, for better practitioners. Articulation of purposes can help better practitioners to gauge progress and evaluate the effects of actions in production (e.g., Hayes, 1989). Articulation of problems regarding means helps better practitioners to conceive practical and effective solutions. Less successful practitioners, in contrast, may fail to solve problems in part because they fail to identify them (Bryson, Bereiter, Scardamalia, & Joram, 1991). Problem finding regarding both ends and means continues throughout production, for better practitioners (e.g., Getzels & Csikszentmihalyi, 1976; Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991). When better problems suggest themselves, better practitioners revise their previous problem conceptions. Finally, for better practitioners, problem finding entails critical thinking and independent judgment. Better practitioners tend *not* to accept tasks as given. Rather, they reformulate tasks in order to achieve more worthy purposes (Bryson et al., 1991). Accordingly, an educational planning process should encourage planners to make critical reappraisals of planning assignments. Such a process should encourage planners to elucidate purposes and problems regarding means initially, but also to revise these as new insights arise in the course of program development.

Situated Learning

Much cognitive research suggests that *general* reasoning skills are not sufficient for effective planning and problem solving in most domains. Rather, substantive knowledge acquired through domain-specific or *situation*-specific experience is essential (e.g., Chi, Glaser, & Farr, 1988; Hunt, 1991; Ericsson & Smith, 1991; Lave & Wenger, 1991). This research is in accord with Schön's (1983) finding that professionals rely on "repertoires" of images, examples and understandings culled from practice to frame and solve problems effectively. Other studies of skilled practitioners in various professions (e.g., Benner, 1984) have yielded similar findings. Cervero (1988) has drawn upon these studies to develop a model of practice which is consistent with the critical perspective in adult education. The studies suggest that in order to understand a situation, one must involve oneself with the persons, tasks, objects, environments and other aspects of the situation, although involvement may be only "peripheral" (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Therefore, an educational planning process should encourage planners' involvement with the aspects of the situations that planners are to address in planning. Following Cervero and Wilson (1994), I would argue that the situations planners should address include the situations that learners themselves will confront in the classroom and "real world," plus other situations that are relevant to the interests of legitimate stakeholders.

In contrast, classical theory would substitute sound reasoning for substantive experience and knowledge (Wagner, 1991). Similarly, many practitioners believe that planners produce better programs when they know as little as possible about the matters that programs are to address (Ruyle, 1993). Where such beliefs prevail, planners are not likely to use a planning process which facilitates the type of involvement described above.

The Attributes Combined

The various process attributes are described separately in this paper, but are likely to be effective only when combined. For example, it is difficult for a planner without knowledge of relevant situations to exercise independent judgment with regard to program purposes and problems. Problem finding depends on situated learning in that respect. A planner's understanding of one program component may change when the planner develops insights about a second, related component. But if the planner cannot make revisions with regard to the first component, then such holistic thinking will have no effect. If the planner is aware that revision will not be possible, then the planner may not bother to consider how the first and second program components are related.

WHY EDUCATORS SHOULD ADVOCATE A LEARNING PROCESS

If planners do not develop a necessary understanding of matters that are relevant to stakeholders' interests, then planners will not be able to represent stakeholders' interests effectively. If planners cannot represent such interests effectively, then substantive democracy will be impossible. If the failure to understand is the result of the type of planning process used, then the process cannot be considered a substantively democratic process. Cervero and Wilson (1994) have indicated that a responsible educator's duty is to nurture such a process. Thus educators should advocate a process which supports learning among planners.

Educators should advocate such a process because the consequences of planners' failure to learn can be hard to detect, and therefore hard to correct. Programs generated through conventional planning approaches are not grossly deficient, typically. They simply fall short of an *unrecognized* potential. Evaluation measures may not be sensitive enough to identify such program weaknesses.

Educators should advocate a process which supports learning because learning is *not* the inevitable outcome of planning and production (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991), or of life in general. For example, some years ago I was asked to create training for professionals who would appear as expert witnesses in legal proceedings. The client and I hashed out a conventional program design. In the content development phase, as I struggled to generate examples and place them in logical groupings, I reflected on what I had observed previously in my career as a labor and civil rights attorney. I considered how witnesses got into trouble when they tried to outguess opposing counsel or shield themselves from painful disclosures, for instance. Over time, I began to recognize patterns of problems in witness behaviors that I had never fully noticed before. This led me to conceive a new purpose and alter the program content accordingly. Why had I not simply specified the better purpose in the first place? The answer is that my previous legal experience *by itself* did not enable me to understand the problems encountered by witnesses.

Learners were represented by an advisory panel in the training project. These professionals had years of experience as witnesses. Yet they conceived no better purpose than I did. I mention this *not* to oppose the involvement of learners and other stakeholder representatives in planning, but to rebut the widespread notion that understanding is unproblematic if the right representatives are selected. Learners are considered experts as to their own interests (cf., Monette, 1977). Institutional leaders are considered experts as to institutional interests. Experienced workers are considered experts as to the jobs they do. That such persons might lack critical insights is "if not unthinkable, seemingly unthought" (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991, p. 189). A contrasting view urged here is that seemingly knowledgeable persons may not have had opportunities to transform their knowledge as required to create effective programs, and that conventional planning approaches do not present such opportunities.

Learning will have little impact if planners cannot *act* on their new understandings. Therefore educators should nurture conditions that support both learning and action consistent with learning among planners. Such conditions may involve incentives and rewards, access to information, physical environments and production requirements at the individual program planning level or higher (Gilbert, 1978). Project staffing may play a role as well but the goal of this paper is to describe a type of *process* in which all planning participants should be helped to engage, rather than describe the types of *persons* who should be excluded from or included in planning.

CONCLUSION

I have argued that responsible educators must nurture conditions that support learning and action consistent with learning among planners. Further research should be done to reveal how educators might accomplish this. The following may be fruitful areas for inquiry:

- *Time.* Knowledge-transforming can divert much time and effort from other activities (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991). Researchers might investigate ways to create more time for learning during planning, therefore. Better yet, they might investigate ways to integrate learning with everyday activities other than planning.

- *Teams.* On large projects, production is often "modularized" so that related topics are parceled out to different planners. This can prevent planners from reflecting on related matters in a holistic way. Instructional developers are often required to develop modules in serial rather than parallel fashion to smooth out the workload for subject matter experts, learner representatives and other program reviewers. Multiple layers of approval requirements may be created to give different stakeholder representatives a voice in the development process. These arrangements can also discourage developers from making appropriate revisions in programs. Researchers might consider whether more beneficial divisions of labor are possible, therefore.

- *Rewards and incentives.* Planners with substantive knowledge and experience may withhold critical insights if they do not share in the rewards for program development or have limited opportunities to make decisions (cf., Fingeret & Jurmo, 1989). Planners in general may be discouraged from learning if learning during planning is punished (perhaps because it is equated with inefficiency) or non-learning is rewarded. Researchers might investigate various types of performance measures and consequences such as job pay and promotions, formal recognition, informal social approval and self-satisfaction for possible effects on learning, therefore.

- *Beliefs about planning.* Many practitioners believe that the approach presented in classical models is the best or only way to plan (Brookfield, 1986). Accordingly, researchers might consider how beliefs of educators and other planning participants support or inhibit learning, and how dysfunctional beliefs might be changed.

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TEACHING ADULTS TO WRITE: A SITUATED ACTIVITY

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ABSTRACT

Proponents of situated cognition argue that in order to comprehend adult cognitive processes we must understand how setting, culturally-provided tools, and social activity structure learning. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine adult learners' perceptions of how they learned to write in the social context of the computer-based developmental writing classroom. While learners reported that standard writing principles helped, this study suggests that the nature of the writing technology and the social conditions of the computer-based classroom were central elements in structuring their learning to write.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching adults to write typically means teaching writing as an individual cognitive process in which adults learn to apply abstract writing principles, procedures and models of the writing process to their writing. This approach assumes that a general set of writing skills applies in any context. As technology continues to evolve, developmental writing courses for adults are often conducted in computer-based classrooms where teachers and adult learners use word processors for writing. But teachers of adults frequently do not focus on the word processor itself as a central tool in structuring learning to write, which ignores the role word processors may play in the writing process. Previous research (e.g. Reed, 1990; French, 1991) indicates that using word processors in teaching writing reduces learners' anxiety about writing and increases how much they revise their writing, which suggests alterations in the way learners feel about writing and changes in the writing process itself. Missing from this research, however, is how adult learners actually learn to write using word processors and how the social context of the computer-based classroom structures their learning to write. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to examine the perceptions of adult learners concerning how word processors structure their learning to write in the social context of the computer-based classroom.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE: WRITING MODELS AND SITUATED COGNITION

Teachers of writing to adults traditionally provide students with general guidelines and procedures for writing, sometimes in a flowchart or cookbook fashion. It is assumed that adult learners can simply transfer the process of writing from one writing topic and situation to another. The *expressive* and *cognitive* views, the dominant writing models (Faigley, 1986), generally ignore the context within which learning to write occurs, depicting learning as an internal mental process. The expressive view of the writing process stresses integrity of text, spontaneity, and originality. Proponents of this approach assume that the process for writing can transfer spontaneously from situation to situation with relative ease (Smagorinsky and Smith, 1992). This assumption also is evident in the cognitive view of the writing process, as typified by Flower and Hayes' (1981) recursive writing model. It consists of three phases: planning, translating, and reviewing; the context within which writers are writing and how this may affect their learning to write is ignored. There is also an inherent linearity in their model that implies writers must move mentally from step to step in the writing process. The problem with the dominant teaching models of writing is that they assume learning to write is an internal sequential process and do not take into account how computers and the social structure of the computer-based classroom may affect the processes students use for writing. In addition, the authors of these models seem to assume that the writing processes will be the same whether students write with pen and paper or with word processors.

A third perspective on the process of writing, the *social* view, does take into account the social context of the writer as she or he writes. Faigley (1986) explains that the social view is based on one central assumption "that human language (including writing) can be understood only from the perspective of society rather than a single individual...the focus of a social view of writing, therefore, is not how the social situation influences the individual, but on how the individual is a constituent of culture" (p. 157). But Lave (1988) and Giddens (1979) argue that learners constitute and are constituted by society, or as Lave says, live in and fashion their society at the same time. Lave's work can be used to augment the ideas suggested by the social view of the writing process and may have profound implications for examining the process of writing in a computer-based classroom. If, as the social view of the writing process suggests, learners are constituents of a culture, then how they learn may well depend on the context within which the learning is taking place, and as Lave suggests, on the tools they use as they learn.

Because word processors are culturally-provided tools embedded in the social dynamics of the class, activity theory and theories of situated cognition provided the theoretical framework for conducting this study. Social learning theory asserts that people learn from observing other people in an observational setting (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991). Randic (1991), in describing Vygotsky's theories on learning language, asserted that "knowledge, thought and learning are social and collaborative acts" (p. 5). Findings from Lave's 1988 ethnographic study of how adults used math in real-world contexts such as grocery stores led her to assert that "knowledge in practice, constituted in the settings of practice, is the locus of the most powerful knowledgeability of people in the lived-in world" (1988, p. 14). Lave argues that learning cannot be understood simply as an internal, individual mental process in which the mind acquires and stores knowledge for future use in any context. Instead, human cognition is profoundly situated: learning and knowing are structured by people interacting with each other in tool-dependent environments, which leads to an understanding of learning as a complex social phenomenon. This approach to adult learning incorporates the mind, body, activity and culturally provided tools in a complex web of recursive interactions (Rogoff & Lave, 1984; Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1989). In other words, "knowing and learning are centrally integrated within the language, tools, and culture of socially organized settings...setting and activity dialectically structure cognition" (Wilson, 1993, pg. 336). Viewing learning from this perspective causes us to develop an understanding of how tools and social interaction structure cognition, which means that learning must be investigated within the situations in which it occurs. Our objective in this study was to examine how tools and social interaction may structure learning to write in a computer-based classroom. Because we view learning as a social process, we sought to investigate adult learners' perceptions of word processors used as tools for writing and the computer-based classroom as their social context of learning.

METHODOLOGY

In order to understand how tools and social interactions structure adult learners' perceptions of learning to write in a socially interactive computer-based classroom, we used a qualitative research design. Data were gathered using semi-structured interviews with twelve adult learners at the beginning and end of a developmental writing course in a university setting. Additional data consisted of researcher observations and learners' journals regarding their reflections on learning to write. We analyzed data using the constant comparative method. Interview data were analyzed first for emerging themes which were then triangulated with student journals and researcher observations.

FINDINGS

Three categories of perceptions emerged during the data analysis. First, learners indicated that computers gave them "power over" their writing in terms of having more control over the writing process; this "power" enabled them to "write better" with computers than they did with paper and pen. Second, the more interactive conditions of the computer-based classroom provided more opportunities for adult learners to "talk about" their writing and the computers as tools for writing with each other. Thus their social interaction contributed to their development as writers. Third, viewing their writing on the computer screen gave adult learners "distance from" (objectivity) about their own writing which allowed adult learners the opportunity to "re-look and fix" problems with their writing on the computer. The results of the study in general showed that the cultural setting of the computer lab facilitated the students' transformation from non-writers to writers.

POWER OVER

Adult learners reported that they felt they had more power over what and how they wrote using computers than when using pens, paper, and typewriters. The sense that the computer gave them control and power over their time and their writing surfaced frequently in the respondents' comments concerning writing. When asked to describe how writing with computers was different than writing without computers, a women student explained that "I make changes...but I don't have to change everything. I can do what I want with my writing". Another student described how she could "correct everything" on computers, much more so than she ever could when she used a typewriter for writing assignments.

Besides making corrections of errors easier, the functions within the word processor seemed to help adult learners with their writing and gave them more confidence as they wrote, giving students "power over" their writing. Students were eager to learn the functions on the word processor which they felt could help their writing, such as spell checker. We also observed that as students learned the different functions of the word processor, they were willing to share this knowledge with their peers, frequently teaching them how to use these functions. For example, a woman who learned how to block a piece of writing and then move this paragraph via cut and paste to another part of her writing was eager to show this to another student. She sat beside him and "practiced" with him until he not only understood the concept but how this feature could help him as he revised his own writing.

TALK ABOUT

Adult students in this study reported that peer students were helpful to them when they critiqued each other's writing, frequently "talking about" writing and correcting grammar mistakes and other errors. During interviews at the beginning of the semester, adult learners expressed concern that other students would be reading their writing and commenting on it. "I think people have to have a chance to feel comfortable with each other before they can accept critiques," said one women, who admitted in beginning of the semester interviews that she was quite nervous about having other students read her writing. During later interviews, however, many students expressed concern about each other's writing and discussed ways which they felt they had helped other students' writing. One women whose handicapped hand had not prevented her from using word processors extensively before the writing class gave this example of help she gave: "Like if they are talking about baseball and then all of sudden they switch to hockey, it is obvious to them what they mean because they wrote it, but not to me. I try to point out those kinds of things." Another student discussed the help she received by giving an example of this help:

> One example is in this argumentative essay when I was writing about the five point seat belt system. And I wrote two straps over the right shoulder, and two straps over the left shoulder, but then I lost track of the number of straps I was writing about and the person critiquing my paper asked me some questions to make me write it clearer.

All adult students in this study reported getting some form of help from other students in the class during peer critiques. When asked to report helpful comments from students, respondents reported examples which they were able to incorporate into their writing, such as "grammar problems," "needs transitions between paragraphs," and "I don't understand your thesis." One woman, who at the beginning of the semester was very apprehensive about writing and about others reading her writing, reported, "The more peer critiques I did, the better my writing seemed to get to other people. They would say 'you didn't do this, you didn't do that.' So my writing became better. We talk about our writing." Students also reported getting continual help and information from other students in the class concerning how to use word processing functions.

DISTANCE FROM TO RE-LOOK AND FIX

Some students said that being able to see what they had written printed on the computer screen helped them because "it was easier to read" than their own handwriting. Another respondent said, "Just being able to see what I am writing as I am writing it helps me write better and more. It makes writing easier." A woman student mentioned that "seeing the writing visually on the screen helps a lot. I can go through every paragraph and actually find my mistakes before printing. Being able to see it and how it will look helps my writing." Seeing what they had written on the screen seemed to make students more objective about their work. "It's like looking at something someone else had written," said one student. "I can be more critical of it, see my problems and fix them."

Being visually able to see what they had written printed on the computer screen gave students an objectivity about their own writing which they did not seem to have with the essays that they wrote with pen and paper. Since the writers could easily fix their errors in writing using the word processors, they felt that they had more "power" over their writing than they did when they used pen and paper. Since many of the students viewed what they had written using the word processor as not something they themselves had written but something that was on the computer screen, they were able to "distance themselves" from their writing and view it objectively as it was printed on the computer screen. This allowed students to "re-look and fix" their writing.

Sometimes students described using the computer for writing as being less stressful than using a typewriter:

> It helps to do it on the computer rather than on the typewriter. On a computer it is a lot less stressful...and instead of having to retype everything you just fix it on the computer. It relieves a lot of stress.

Seeing what they had written, typed and neatly displayed on the computer screen, also seemed to change students' processes for writing. Although some students wrote out initial drafts of essays with pencil and paper, by the end of the semester most adult learners described using the word processor to write an entire essay, skipping completely prescribed steps which are prominent in dominant process models for writing, such as the model by Flower and Hayes (1981). For example, students were given pre-writing assignments to help them generate ideas before beginning writing assignments; however, we observed that most students did not take time to write the pre-writing assignments, which they were supposed to complete before starting to write their essays, until they had already finished writing their essays. They skipped pre-writing assignments in order to begin generating ideas and drafting their essays on the computers. Adult learners writing with the computers reported developing much more fluid processes for writing, moving between creating ideas to drafting to interacting with other students to publication and back with ease.

DISCUSSION

Adult students described the computer as a valuable tool for writing because of how easily they could change what they had written. Since the adult student writers could easily fix their errors in writing with the functions in the word processor, they felt that they had more power over their writing than they did with pen and paper. Seeing what they had written printed on the computer screen also gave students an objectivity about their own writing which they reported not having with essays they wrote with pen and paper and then typed using typewriters. Adult students who described themselves as not being very good typists expressed hopes that computers would help them with their writing because they anticipated being able to easily fix their typing errors. However, by the end of the semester these students realized that word processors were not a magical fix for problems within their writing. Nevertheless, all students interviewed felt that the computer was a powerful tool which helped them with their writing.

Being able to clearly see what they had written on the screen in a neat printed manner also seemed to affect students' processes for writing. DeBauche (1990) argues that when a writer composes using pen and paper, the pen becomes an extension of the person; thus the writer may view what she or he has written as an extension of her or him self. The essay typed on the computer, however, becomes something printed on the computer screen; physical and mental space separate the writer from what they have written. If this notion is true, then students may feel real ownership of handwritten essays and may be reluctant to make changes to these essays because they are extensions of themselves. Many students in this study said that writing essays on the computer helped them "see" their writing, and since they could "see" it, they were more willing to revise, "fix" and make changes to their writing composed on word processors than they felt they were had they written their essays with pen and paper.

This willingness to revise gave students a sense of having more control over their writing processes and altered the processes students used for writing. At the beginning of the semester, many students described using the computer more or less as a typewriter with which they typed a finished essay. However, as the semester progressed, students integrated the computer into all stages of their writing, thus changing their processes for writing. Writing for these students became a matter of moving back and forth between drafting and revising, using the computer to make their revisions. Students did not feel constrained to follow prescribed steps for writing, but could easily move back and forth between drafting, revising and publishing. Using the functions in the word processor to make these changes also gave them feelings of "power over" their writing.

As adult learners described their writing processes to us, it became clear that their processes for writing were much more fluid and non-linear than the writing process models of writing, such as the process model of Flower and Hayes (1981) described earlier in this paper. Adult learners' explanations of their writing processes were not descriptions of linear processes of writing which moved from pre-writing to drafting to final publication; instead, they moved back and forth between writing and revising, at times not printing out copies of essays but simply reading what they had written on the screen and revising it as they read it. Asking others to critique their work became added components to their writing processes; thus, adult learners writing processes became not just something which was "inside their heads," but social processes which required interactions and input from others. In other words, their writing processes were not internal mental processes, but were influenced by the tools they used and the social interactions within the computer based classroom, structuring their cognition of learning to write

The computer is a powerful tool for writing. Teachers of writing need to recognize it as such and plan classes which allow students time to explore the computer and word processor for writing. If teachers of adults in the computer-based classroom spend large amounts of class time lecturing and prescribing writing processes for students, students will not gain any experience using computers and the computers will basically be used by students as a typewriter for typing end product essays. Teachers of writing in computer-based classrooms hold a powerful tool in their hands and the responsibility to encourage learners to use this tool for writing, structuring classes which allow time for adult learners to interact with others and use the computer for writing.

Our study has particular relevance for understanding how adults learn writing in various settings, such as nontraditional students returning to college, graduate students in higher education, GED students, and adults learning to write in business and industry. As Lave (1988) suggests, learning and knowing cannot be viewed as only an internal mental process where learners store knowledge and information for future use in any context. Tools and interactions among adult learners structure cognition; therefore, learning needs to be investigated within the context in which it occurs. Future research on adult learners' writing processes should focus on examining how the context of the learning situation and the tools used, such as computers, may structure learning.

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DEVELOPING A MENTORING PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT EVALUATION MODEL

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ABSTRACT

Formal adult teacher model mentoring programs tend to have a predictable set of elements: policies, mentor selection procedures, mentor training activities, mentor role expectations, mentor-adult teacher matching, and secondary developmental relationships. Mentoring is an individualized, long-term, teaching/learning relationship between two people used to accomplish a variety of purposes. Yet, little evaluation has been conducted to determine its results, or the effectiveness of the current process, with an eye to making program improvements. The purpose of this qualitative research study was to: develop a program improvement model for an adult teacher mentoring program; apply the model to a formal adult teacher mentoring program; perform a metaevaluation of the model and implementation; and, recommend changes to the model. A case study design was used to accomplish the purpose. Three data sources included individual and group interviews, and 1988 to 1993 historical program documentation. A purposeful sampling strategy was used to select nineteen interviewees from a possible forty-two. The model included defining evaluative questions, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, and reporting, an experienced metaevaluator addressed the model's trustworthiness. Findings confirmed little program accountability, site condition adaptations, model authenticity, and added to the model, identifying stakeholders and decision makers, and replanning and redesign.

INTRODUCTION

Formal adult teacher mentoring programs tend to have a predictable set of elements: policies, mentor selection procedures, mentor training activities, mentor role expectations, adult teacher role expectations, mentor-adult teacher matching, and secondary developmental relationships. These elements could be considered as constituting a model mentoring program. General research on the mentoring relationship, which is a teaching/learning transaction, indicates that mentoring is an individualized, long-term relationship between two people; and, the attitudes, beliefs, values, knowledge, and skills imparted by a mentor to a protégé result from wisdom and experience of the mentor, not from innate character traits.

Mentoring has been used for: religious instruction of children, enhancing the skills and intellectual development of young men entering adulthood, transforming returning higher education students' vision of their future, transitions from one occupation to another, career advancement and employment opportunities in business, helping girls undertake the responsibilities of motherhood and homemaking, men to adapt to life changes, helping clergy learn the ministry profession, enhancing learning in the workplace for better functioning on the job (Knowles, 1972), beginning teachers to develop expertise in the instructional process, availability of help even in the self-directed learning process (Tough, 1979), and seasoned instructors to undertake new ways of educating.

Although formal mentoring programs have been around for many centuries and applied to many contexts and situations, little evaluation has been conducted to determine its results, or the effectiveness of the current process, with an eye to making program improvements.

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

MENTORING

Kram (1985) has extensively investigated mentoring in business. He interviewed numerous people at various levels in the organizations: fifteen junior-level managers, twenty-five mentor-protégé pairs, and ten officers. He believes that developmental work relationships occur throughout the full range of career life and are affected by the life and career stages of participants and the organizational context in which the relationship happens. He thus concludes from the research that formal mentoring programs are ineffective because mentoring relationships cannot be engineered, and individuals are most likely to develop a variety of relationships that provide some mentoring functions, instead of meeting all their needs in one relationship.

Merriam (1983) suggested that thoughtful, cautious consideration be given to developing formal mentoring programs. Her extensive mentoring literature review showed the phenomena of mentoring as not clearly conceptualized and research designs as unsophisticated and poorly, if ever, evaluated.

Nevertheless, mentoring relationships are continuing to be prescribed as part of comprehensive preparation programs for beginning adult teachers. Cruickshank (1989) reports that forty states indicate some activity along this line. Waters and Bernhardt (1989) caution that this push for mentoring programs not be allowed to mask the complexity of designing these programs.

EVALUATION

There is a clear distinction between types of program evaluation which are conducted, formative and summative. Formative evaluation provides feedback to people who are trying to improve something. Summative evaluation provides information for decision makers who are wondering whether to fund, terminate, or purchase something (Scriven, 1980, pp. 6-7).

This study utilized an existing state-mandated formal mentoring program to inform the original design of an evaluation model and its subsequent improvement, thus making moot any further discussion of improvement (formative) versus performance (summative) evaluations. In choosing the formative evaluation, the positivist approach was eliminated since in the mandated mentoring program there were no: clear goals, prespecified causal linkages, preordinate evaluation designs, objective or generalizable judgments of program worth.

The interpretive approach of formative evaluation was chosen because of the compatible assumptions: (1) knowledge and theory are both propositional and tacit, based on theory and personal intuition, experiences and beliefs; (2) causal links among program goals and outcomes are studied as they naturally occur in the program without imposition of external controls or manipulation; (3) evaluative models are evolutionary instead of preordinate; and, (4) evaluation results are a combination of description and judgment of program merit in a particularized context.

PURPOSE

The mentoring and evaluation literature review formed the basis of formulating the purpose of this study which was (1) to develop a program improvement evaluation model for an adult teacher mentor program; (2) to apply the model to a formal adult teacher mentoring program; (3) to perform a metaevaluation of the model and its implementation; and, (4) to recommend changes to the model.

ASSUMPTIONS

This model was also based upon three major assumptions derived from the mentoring and evaluation literatures and upon a conventional definition of formative evaluation. The three assumptions are that adult teacher mentoring programs: (1) can be conceptualized as supporting a complex web of relationships designed to affect the behavior and beliefs of both mentors and mentees; (2) are not discrete isolated entities but a series of related activities embedded in a broader organizational context which affects the structure, process, and evaluation of the program; and, (3) have stakeholders who hold disparate views which present a rich set of multiple realities.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS/FORESHADOWING ISSUES

Several foreshadowing issues emerged from the literature review which helped formulate the questions which guided this research. Does the evaluation and its implementation: (1) Access relevant audiences and serve their practical needs? (2) Respect individual rights and standards of ethical practice? (3) Differentiate mentor and mentee perceptions regarding mentoring activities among various program sites? (4) Indicate how and why mentees access other developmental work relationships? (5) Identify organizational barriers to mentoring? and, (6) Show relative effectiveness of mentoring selection and training?

RESEARCH METHODS AND DESIGN

A case study research design (Yin, 1981) was used to: design the mentor program improvement evaluation model; implement the model; conduct a metaevaluation of the model and its implementation; and, recommend changes to the model. Three data sources were utilized for triangulation in the study: taped, guided individual and group interviews, and 1988 to 1993 historical program documentation. A purposeful sampling strategy (Patton, 1980) was used to select nineteen interviewees from a sample population of forty-two. The formative mentor program improvement evaluation model includes: defining evaluation questions, data collection, data analysis and interpretation, and reporting shown in Figure 1. The metaevaluation was conducted by an independent auditor experienced in qualitative research, and addressed the trustworthiness--credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability--of implementing the model.

Phase 1
Define evaluation questions
Activities:
*Review evaluation and mentor research
*Interview program director and Professional Development Committee
Products:
*Preliminary interview guides

Phase 2
Data collection
Activities:
*Site interviews
*Collect program documents

Products:
*Narrative site summaries
Verification:
*Interviewees

Phase 3
Data analysis & interpretation
Activities:
*Site analysis
*Theme and pattern analysis
*Document analysis
Products:
*Case summary

Verification:
*Professional Development Committee

Phase 3
Reporting
Activities:
*Write reports
*Distribute reports
*Collect verification comments
Products:
*Comprehensive case report
*Executive summary reports
Verification:
*Evaluation participants

Figure 1. Formative Evaluation Program Improvement Model

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Findings of the metaevaluation process indicated little evidence of individual or program-wide accountability. Figure 2 displays the conditions, causes and consequent adaptations, which as reported by interview subjects, tended to affect their ability to be in a mentor relationship.

CONDITIONS	CAUSES	ADAPTATIONS
TIME TO MEET		
Adequate	*Synchronous or compatible schedules	*Frequent meetings *Increased adoption of mentor duties
Inadequate	*Mismatched schedules *Assignment mismatch	*No formal meetings *Spontaneous "quick fix" crises meetings only *First-year teacher forms substitute relationship
ASSIGNMENT MATCH		
Good	*Trained mentor available at grade level or in same department as first-year teacher	*Frequent meetings *Variety of mentor assistance given to first-year teacher
Poor	*Lack of qualified mentor in the cadre to meet the need *Planned mismatch to increase communication among departments	*Infrequent meetings *Repeated use of the same mentors *Mentor role dissonance *Teammates instead of formal mentor
PROXIMITY		
Near	*Grade level or department match	*Frequent meetings
Distant	*Assignment mismatch	*Infrequent meetings *Decrease in types of assistance given to first-year teacher *Beginner forms substitute relationship
ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT		
Adequate	*Administrator plans aide coverage for mentor and first-year teacher to meet *Administrator evaluates mentor-beginner relationship	*Increased adoption of mentor duties
Inadequate	*Poor administrator communication with mentor and first-year teacher	*Mentor role dissonance *Mentor feels unaccountable

Figure 2. Conditions Affecting the Mentor Relationship

The auditor verified the implementation of the model as an authentic evaluation to: fairly portray program participants views; increase participant awareness of the program environment; increase participant understanding of how others value and hold meaning for the program; and, effect actual program changes as a result of the evaluation.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A revised mentor program evaluation model was fashioned for improvement of the mentoring program as a conclusion of the metaevaluation which adds two phases to the original four phases. The two new phases are now Phase 1 and Phase 6. This revision is shown on Figure 3.

Phase 1
Identify stakeholders and decision decision makers
Activities:
*Define audiences of the evaluation
*Describe sites program locations
Products:
*List of stakeholders and decision makers

Phase 2
Define evaluation questions
Activities:
*Review evaluation and mentor research
*Interview program director
Products:
*Focus group interview guides

Phase 3
Data collection
Activities:
*Conduct site focus groups
*Design questionnaires
*Plan and schedule use of the questionnaire
*Deliver and collect questionnaire returns
Products:
*Summary of focus group notes by site
*Completed questionnaires sorted by sites

Phase 3
Data analysis & interpretation
Activities:
*Analysis of site data
*Theme and pattern analysis
Products:
*Site summaries

Phase 5
Reporting
Activities:
*Write reports
*Distribute reports to program participants
Products:
*Annual summary report

Phase 6
Replanning and design
Activities:
*Plan program changes
*Plan strategies to monitor changes
Products:
*Program procedures
*Evaluation plan

Figure 3. Revised Formative Evaluation Program Improvement Model

Implications of this study are that the findings and conclusions may be useful to adult, extension, community, and continuing educators seeking to prepare and/or mentor new educators of adults being engaged to teach in their programs. Professional development organizations, state departments of education, university or college faculty, and corporate human resource developers who provide preparation for teachers of adults could also use these findings and conclusions for upgrading the quality of teaching, mentoring, learning and performance which would result.

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ASPECTS OF ARAB CULTURE AFFECTING ADULT LEARNERS: GENDER, CLASS, AND RELIGIOUS ISSUES

Jenny Hopkins

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses gender, class, and religious issues affecting adult Arab students in a learning situation. Characteristics of adult Arab learners and cultural factors which affect learning are mentioned, including Arab concepts of face and honor, family life, and the Arabic language itself. This information, which is taken mainly from the field of English as a Second Language (ESL) and sociological studies of the Arab culture, will be especially helpful in planning programs for adult Arab students. But the issues presented here extend beyond the Arab culture and are important for all practitioners of adult and continuing education, especially those practitioners who work with adults from varied cultural backgrounds.

INTRODUCTION

The growing cultural and ethnic diversity of America is one of the most important demographic variables which adult educators need to consider in their field as this century closes (Merriam & Caffarella, 1991). While Arab-Americans do not yet constitute such a significant minority as do Hispanics, African-Americans, and Native Americans, their numbers in certain areas of the Upper Midwest, such as Dearborn, Michigan, Chicago, Illinois, and Milwaukee, Wisconsin are significant (Haiek, 1992). This means that adult educators in areas of the US which have high concentrations of Arabs will need to consider the cultural factors of the Arab ethnic group when planning educational programs to fit the needs of Arab adult learners.

This paper will give a brief background on Arab society, and then will focus on religious, gender, and class issues that have direct implications for teachers of Arabs in adult learning contexts. Finally, some research on characteristics of adult Arab students will be presented, along with implications for practice in the field of adult and continuing education. The ideas presented here are not meant to show the superiority of one culture over another, nor is any value judgment being made about the worth of any culture. The general statements made in this paper about Arab adult learners are meant to be used only as a guide for adult educators when working with adult learners from cultures which are different from their own.

ARAB SOCIETY

The term "Arab" refers to those people who have come to the United States from countries in the Middle East. This includes the 21 countries extending from Morocco to Iraq and from Syria to the countries of the Arabian peninsula. Arabs are people whose first language is Arabic, whose religion is Islam, and who identify themselves as Arab. (Arabs themselves believe that they form a cultural unit) (Nydell, 1987). Although non-Muslims constitute 5% of the Arab population in this area, Islam is an important and influential force for everyone from the Middle East, and is therefore included as one of the factors which defines an Arab.

Arab culture is a tight one which demands conformity of its participants. The most important social unit is that of the extended family -- a patriarchal structure which serves the purpose of much more than just a family in the Western sense of the word. Family members look out for each other and provide social services for each other where the government does not. Children learn to subordinate their own desires to those of the parents who make most decisions in the family including what they are to study in school (Farquharson, 1989). Although it is often assumed that the father makes all decisions within the Arab family, it is more accurate to say that the mother has a large degree of influence in the important family decisions. In fact, most decisions are made with much consultation and input from all family members. Within this "corporation" type of family structure, the needs of the group come ahead of the needs of the individual (Rugh, 1985). The personal status of members of a corporation is defined by the group and not by the activities of the group's individual members. In addition, the behaviors of an individual are evaluated by how well they reflect on the group.

Related to this idea is the issue of honor, which can help explain why the concept of "face" is so important in Arab society. The way that an individual is treated by others is indicative of their social standing within the group. It is necessary for Arabs to be treated with respect at all times. Respect can be shown in the timing and amount of attention given, the words spoken by a person when addressing an Arab, or even in the tone of voice that is used in conversations. This is especially crucial for American teachers to keep in mind because criticism of Arab students in front of their peers is a very shameful thing. Blending in to the group unit is more important than standing out as an individual in Arab society.

EDUCATIONAL ROOTS IN THE RELIGION OF ISLAM

The religion of Islam has a long tradition in the Arab world in all aspects of life including education, family structure, and the laws of Arab countries. Religion and education have been linked since the beginnings of Islam in the Middle East. In order to understand the educational system in Arab societies, as well as the educational context that adult Arab learners have come from, it is necessary to know something about the religion of Islam. Islam has had a profound influence on attitudes towards education and the educational methods used in Arab society.

ORAL SOCIETY AND THE QUR'AN

The people of the Arabian peninsula had an oral culture before Islam was introduced there in the 7th century. Islamic historians claim that there were only about 17 literate people in the city of Mecca at the time Mohammed began preaching the message of the Qur'an (Shalaby, 1979). The Prophet Mohammed was also illiterate when, at age 40, he began receiving the message of God through the archangel Gabriel. The religion of Islam gradually changed the illiterate, oral society into a literate society which valued education. The message of Islam included encouragement for followers to pursue knowledge and to become lifelong learners. For the first few years, however, the messages that Mohammed received were passed on orally and memorized until much later when they were recorded in the first book of the Arabs and of the Muslims -- their holy book -- the Qur'an.

The Qur'an was delivered to Mohammed in the language which is now known as Classical Arabic. This language has not deviated since the 7th century when the first verses were revealed because it is considered to be the language of God. Muslims believe that the Arabic language existed before time began (Ferguson, 1959). The Qur'an provides the ultimate example of the written word in Arab culture. It is not to be contested, criticized, changed, or disputed. This fact may account for some of the problems Arab students face in reading other texts. It is hard, for example, for Arab students to read a text critically (Farquharson, 1989), or to understand certain literary devices, such as similes, metaphors, or "poetic license."

THE FIRST SCHOOLS

The first schools in Islamic Arabia were called Kuttab's. Arabic poetry and the Qur'an were used as the "texts" in oral form. The students who attended the religious schools, or Kuttab's, learned to recite the Qur'an by heart. They also learned to read, write, and do some math. The teaching methods used at the Kuttab were mostly reciting and memorizing (Stanton, 1990).

The influence of the original Kuttab schools can be felt even today. Arabs value education and respect those who pursue learning. But because the educational methods used in the Middle East have not changed significantly from the techniques of memorization and imitation used in the first Islamic schools, students do not learn the skills to do research nor the ability to develop solutions to problems. Students from the Middle East who come to North America must adapt a critical/analytical style in their new educational environment. Problems arise when Arab students attempt to apply strategies learned in their home culture (e.g., never questioning a text) to the new educational situation in North America (Farquharson, 1989).

GENDER

Throughout Islamic society, it has been a tradition that girls not receive the same education as boys. Many men believed that if girls were free to leave the home and attend school, even if they were chaperoned, the morals of the society would deteriorate (Hyde, 1978). Although girls were allowed to attend the Kuttab, they had to return home once they reached a certain age, so lapsed back into illiteracy even if they learned how to read while attending the Kuttab (Marei, 1978). It was considered that educating females would not be of any value to society.

Nowadays, in many countries of the Middle East, although classes are often separated by sex, women have the same opportunities as men to receive an education at all levels of instruction. But it seems that men still have certain advantages as can be seen from the large number of male foreign students from the Middle East compared to the number of female foreign students from the Middle East (Addou & Hodinko, 1989). Often Arab families will not permit their daughters to travel abroad by themselves to study.

Social interactions between Arab men and women are usually permissible at work (except in the stricter Gulf countries, such as Saudi Arabia). But relations between the sexes are carefully controlled in most other situations. The honor of the family is always of prime concern, and women who do not conform to social traditions risk more problems in Arab society than do men, especially in issues that concern family honor (Nydell, 1987). An Arab woman, even though she may be a well-educated professional, is careful of guarding her reputation. She usually is not comfortable being alone in a room with a man if she is not related to him or married to him. This is an issue that teachers of Arab adults need to be cognizant of when discussing progress with students in a one-on-one situation. It may be useful to provide same-sex teachers for groups of Arab students. Advertising classes as "all-female" or "all-male" would increase participation, especially among traditional or strongly religious Arab women and men.

Instructors also need to be aware of the special problems that might be encountered when trying to use typical adult education practices such as group work or pair work. Arab women may not feel comfortable working with a male partner on a class project. Arab men, especially those who are devout Muslims, may feel equally uncomfortable talking to women who are not members of their own family. Adult educators need to realize that this cultural issue could severely inhibit group or pair work, even though this type of classroom interaction is often highly favored over traditional lecture methods in adult learning situations. Careful planning ahead of time to develop same-sex groups may avoid some of the gender-related problems of alternative classroom activities.

SOCIAL CLASS

All across the Middle East, the society is divided into several different social classes: the nobility and extremely affluent upper class, the middle class of governmental and military employees, merchants, landowners and teachers, and the lower class laborers, farmers, and peasants. Bedouins generally fall outside of these social classes and do not mix with the city dwellers (Nydell, 1987). Social class is mainly determined by birth and remains fixed. Changes in class can occur, although they do not become apparent for several generations. One of the main issues of social class in relation to education is the command of the Arabic language.

Although all Arabs speak the local colloquial variety of the Arabic language, only the educated (i.e., middle and upper classes) have command of formal written Arabic. Exposure to foreign languages is limited to those who attend school, and real proficiency in a foreign language is limited to the people who can afford private schools where all instruction is in a language other than Arabic. Teachers of adult Arabs need to know the social class of their students in order to determine their command of the various forms of Arabic and possible exposure to foreign languages. Arab students in an ESL class in the United States, for example, are likely to be from the lower-middle class because upper class Arabs will most likely have already learned English before they become adults. If the learners are political refugees of the lower class, rather than voluntary immigrants of the middle class, they may not even be literate in Arabic. It would be useful for teachers of adult Arabs to inquire into the educational background and social class of their students to determine literacy levels in their native language as well as their English proficiency. An awareness of their language background would be useful for other types of learning situations as well. In addition, it is important for American educators to have a better understanding of the Arabic language itself, especially the issue of diglossia.

Arabic is a diglossic language, which means that there are two or more varieties of the language used in the same speech community for specific purposes and specific occasions (Ferguson, 1959). There are both high and low forms of Arabic, and these forms are used for very specific functions. The high (H) form of Arabic is similar to that of the Qur'an. It is different from the low (L) form, called colloquial, in many aspects including pronunciation, vocabulary, and structure. The L Arabic is acquired naturally by all Arabs at home as a first language. The H form is learned as a second language and is almost never spoken fluently. The grammar of H Arabic is taught in terms of rules, whereas the grammar of the L form is learned intuitively and Arabs may not even consider that it is a real language.

The implications of this diglossic situation are obvious when considering issues such as education, literacy, and learning other languages. All people, even the well-educated, must learn H Arabic at school. Anybody who wants to read or write the language must learn the H form. So people who do not attend school at all or those who do not attend for very long will not become literate in Arabic. Even though these people may be familiar with the H form through their memorization of Qur'anic verses, they are not able to use it with any degree of fluency. In terms of learning a second language, Arab students will have interference from two different languages: writing errors in English will result form interference with the H form and speaking errors will come from the L form (Thompson-Panos & Thomas-Ruzic, 1983).

CHARACTERISTICS OF ARAB LEARNERS

A brief review of some of the characteristics of Arab learners can help North American teachers understand the way that their Arab students approach a learning task. A few of these characteristics, presented below, include the communication styles of Arabs, learning style preferences, and rhetorical styles.

In both written and spoken language, Arabs have a tradition of exaggeration, over assertion, repetition, and frequent restatement (Farquharson, 1989). Arabs feel that unless they over assert and exaggerate, they might be misunderstood. In addition, Arab students may rely more on spoken instructions than on written ones. Even though the Qur'an is never contested, other written material is not treated the same in Arab culture. There is even a certain mistrust for information which is provided in written form. A person's word is trusted more than what is written, and Arab students need verbal instructions and reassurance. This tendency to trust the spoken message more than written messages may stem from the fact that the oral tradition has been strong in the Middle East for many centuries.

Reid (1987) studied the learning styles of ESL students, including some Arab students. Her study results were based on self-reports, but found that Arab students were quite strong visual and auditory learners. The Arab students in her study reported the following learning styles in order of preference: kinesthetic, tactile, auditory, individual, visual, and group. It is interesting to note that her study lists "group" learning as the method least preferred, even over "individual" learning. This seems to go against what was mentioned previously about the importance of blending into groups and not standing out as an individual in Arab society. Yet, Arabs are not often given the opportunity to work in groups in the classrooms of the Middle East, which may explain their preference for other learning styles.

Logic and rhetoric are interpreted differently in different cultures; they are not universals. The English language and the thought patterns that go with it have evolved out of the Anglo-Saxon culture, which was heavily influenced by the philosophers of ancient Greece, Rome, and Medieval Europe (Kaplan, 1966). It has resulted in a specific type of logic and rhetoric which values subordination of ideas in a linear fashion. Units of thought are represented graphically by paragraphs, each one containing a single topic statement which is followed by examples supporting the main idea. There is a hierarchy of ideas, all of which are included for a purpose. Whether the main idea is stated at the beginning or at the end, all other information in the paragraph must relate to that single main thought. Maturity of style in English is shown by using subordination techniques properly. Students of other cultural backgrounds are not able to write "good" essays in English due partly to the differences in logic, rhetoric, and thought patterns of various cultures.

In the Arabic language, parallel constructions are used instead of the subordination technique employed in English. There are several types of parallelism including synonymous ideas, contrasting ideas, and the completion of an idea in the second part of the parallel. This type of sentence or paragraph construction is judged to be awkward or archaic sounding by English speakers. The English language is not designed for this type of construction, whereas extensive parallelism is linguistically possible and expected in Arabic (Kaplan, 1966). Teachers need to be aware of the different rhetoric styles across cultures and to teach the desired form with a tolerance for cultural variations.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The background on Arab culture and research on characteristics of Arab learners can be used to enhance the interactions between Arab students and American teachers. The adult Arab will expect a higher degree of formality than is generally found in the North American classroom and may question the expertness of the teacher who acts too informally at first. Yet even though formality is expected, teachers should not be too severe with their criticism of Arab students either. They should be indirect or include praise for the individual and the work that that person does before negative comments are given (Nydell, 1987). American teachers should be aware of the fact that many Arabs may not be able to understand the concept of "constructive criticism," and teachers should remember the importance of "face" in Arab culture.

Teachers may also find that, when working with Arab students, it may be easier to begin with very traditional teaching methods, and only gradually introduce other instructional techniques. Principles of adult education -- such as having the learners set personal learning goals and evaluate themselves, including learners in the planning and implementation of classroom activities, using the experience and background of the learners as part of the curriculum, and collaborating to learn from each other -- will seem extremely suspicious to most adult Arabs. This is not to say that these methods should never be used. Rather, it is important to start with methods that are familiar to Arab learners, and slowly incorporate other adult education principles.

Many people find that Arab culture is similar to that of other people from the Mediterranean area or Latin America (Nydell, 1987). In addition, the educational traditions of this region of the world are similar to those found in other parts of the world (e.g., Asia). The research on Arab culture and the implications this research has for practice in the field of adult education can also be applied to other ethnic groups of adult learners. For example, the concept of "face" is much more important in many cultures around the world than it is in the United States, teachers are treated with extreme respect and deference in many cultures, and instruction is often segregated by sex. In addition, learners from many other ethnic groups come from countries which have diglossic language situations and will have varying degrees of proficiency in their native language along with problems using English. This is difficult for monolingual Americans to comprehend, but can have a profound impact on the success of adult learners. In short, many issues that North American educators take for granted may be problematic when learners from different cultures are in adult learning situations in the United States.

Minority groups are becoming larger in the United States, yet most programs for adult learners remain monocultural even as the society becomes polycultural. Adult educators need to be aware of the many cultural variables which affect learning as their classrooms fill up with people from varied ethnic groups. By examining the components that make up a different culture, such as the Arab culture, and by working with those differences instead of against them, educators of adults can work more successfully with the cultural group they are intending to reach. For adult educators dealing with the Arab population, the many issues dealt with in this paper provide a good place to start learning about the Arab culture and how Arabs view education.

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WHOLE LANGUAGE AND ADULT LITERACY

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Abstract: Whole language entails whole learners, whole teachers, whole methods, whole curriculum, whole environments, and politics. Those six components form the essence of whole language. In applying whole language to adult literacy education, those six components must be kept as a whole and fully integrated.

INTRODUCTION

"The future of whole language," Goodman (1992) maintained, "is the future of education." Whole language has found its way into various language education settings from preschool to colleges. Though it is gaining its popularity, whole language is still not well understood. Even those "who are certain that they understand practices and principles of whole language" are way off the mark concerning its definition (Davenport & Watson, 1993). This paper defines what whole language is and explores its implications in adult literacy.

DEFINITION

Whole language is not just about language, but about all the important aspects of language learning and teaching. It has six major components.

Whole language entails a whole learner. A whole language program must be for the learner, reflect the learner's needs, build on the learner's strengths, and work help the learner to overcome his or her weaknesses.

Whole language also entails a whole teacher. A whole teacher is one who is not an authoritarian in the classroom, not one who believes he or she knows everything, not one who follows theory dogmatically, but one who learns together with students, uses theory as a guide, yet remains open-minded, is ready to adapt the theory to fit the characteristics of the students, treats students as whole persons, and always keeps in mind students' needs and interests in instruction.

Whole language means whole aspects of language, including whole texts and whole language skills. Whole texts do not have to be whole books. Any written piece that is complete in itself in a given context is a whole text. For example, a "stop" sign contains only one word, yet it specifies a well-defined context, conveys an explicit message, expresses a complete idea, and thus qualifies as a complete text.

Whole language skills include speaking, listening, reading and writing. The word "whole" in "whole language skills" does not mean "all," but mean "inseparable." Instruction should focus on the development and integration of all the skills.

Whole language entails whole methods, whole methods of teaching and learning. Whole methods do not mean a teacher should use all the methods in teaching, nor should a learner use all the methods in learning. Rather a teacher should not separate methods from learning processes. One uses a method because a learning situation calls for it, not because the curriculum prescribes it, the theory says so, or the principal says so.

Whole language means a whole curriculum and whole environments. The traditional practice of separating language education from the rest of the curriculum needs to be changed. Language teaching must be integrated into the whole curriculum, and favorable literacy environments must be created both at school, home, and communities.

Whole language is politics (Davenport & Watson, 1993) and democracy. Unlike traditional classrooms where education is claimed to be politically neutral and democracy is preached but not practiced, whole language educators hold that education is never politically neutral and that education is for promoting democracy and for effecting social change. Whole language classes practice democracy by treating students and instructors as equals, empowering students, and letting students control their learning and lives.

IMPLICATIONS OF WHOLE LANGUAGE IN ADULT LITERACY

The whole language movement is a grassroots movement of language teachers in grade schools, yet its basic principles apply to adult literacy. In applying whole language to adult literacy, we need to make sure adult literacy programs embody the essence of the six components of whole language.

WHOLE ADULT LEARNERS

An adult literacy program must be learner-based. Learners determine their goals and objectives, control their own learning, and decide what to learn and how to learn; instructors and administrators should work closely with them, listen to their opinions about the program, seek suggestions concerning the curriculum and instruction, and gear the program to their needs and interests.

An adult literacy program is for the whole learner. It must go beyond helping adults learn to read and write. It must tend to the learners' other needs and well-being. For example, if some adult learners are out of job, adult literacy programs should assist those learners with their job hunting efforts. If some learners need public assistance, the program should provide relevant information and help them with application processes.

WHOLE ADULT LITERACY INSTRUCTORS

Whole adult literacy instructors first of all need to be whole persons, who care for not only the learners' learning but also their whole welfare, including their emotional, personal, and social needs. They should be considerate, thoughtful, nurturing, democratic, and open-minded. They should be their students' friends, care for them, keep their needs and interests in mind, and do whatever necessary to help them.

A whole instructor is one who helps learners to learn and to provide assistance, not one who learns for the learners by providing right answers. Failure to provide needed assistance or providing unnecessary assistance is a violation of the notion of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD). To assess what assistance is necessary, instructors need to know their students, watch them how they learn, learn together with them, and seek insight about their learning processes.

Whole adult literacy instructors never assume that they know everything. They need to keep in mind that there is a lot they can learn from their students. Their students have rich experiences and insight about life. Sharing their experiences and insight can help instructors to develop and to grow.

Whole language stresses individualized reading programs for students, who select what to read, determine their own pace, and monitor their own progress. This does not mean that instructors do not play a big role. Instructors serve as advisors, planners, organizers, and facilitator, surveying the learners' needs, advising them, helping them plan their courses of development, and organizing instructional events to facilitate their learning processes.

WHOLE TEXTS AND WHOLE LANGUAGE SKILLS

In helping adult learners to learn to read and write, a whole language program should make good use of whole books and authentic texts. To many whole language educators, authentic texts means originals, not the adapted ones. Rejecting adapted texts is many whole language educators' response to textbook writers' practice of producing texts by following readability formulas. As these formulas are never designed for such purposes, in using these formulas, writers sacrificing the richness of the contents, destroy cohesion and coherence, and usually end up with ill-structured and artificial texts. However, to me, the issue is not whether a text is adapted or not. The issue is whether a text is well-constructed or not. Just as there are good originals and bad originals, there are good adapted texts and bad adapted texts. In selecting reading materials, whole language programs should emphasize the quality of the texts rather than how the texts are constructed. If a text is well written, be it adapted or not, it can be selected. Research shows that well adapted texts also work well with adult learners (Schierloh, 1994).

Texts in whole adult literacy programs should reflect the interests and needs of the learners and be related to the learners' lives. For example, in workplace literacy programs, instructors may include benefit packages as instructional materials. As those materials directly address the learners' concerns, they can help enhance workers' participation and motivate the learners to learn. Other materials such as job application forms, classified sections of newspapers, bank statements and utility bills can also be used as texts.

A whole language adult literacy program should foster the development of all language skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing. These skills should be addressed as a whole. There are many ways to integrate those skills, one of which is the language experience approach. With this approach, a variety of activities can be organized. One activity is to have students talk about their immediate or long-term goals, have their goals written out, and use their written goals as texts. Another activity is to use oral history as a springboard, do story telling, share learning experiences, and work on a personal biography (Stasz, Schwartz, and Weeden, 1994). A third activity is to select newspaper articles closely related to students' lives, record them onto tapes, instruct students to listen to them, organize discussions about those recorded articles, then distribute these articles for the students to read, and assign them to respond to these articles in writing.

WHOLE METHODS

As has been discussed elsewhere, whole methods do not mean that instructors should try all the methods available. Rather they should make professional judgments and select the methods which best suit both the learning task and the characteristics of their students. Take teaching vocabulary for example. Many methods are available, such as the word list method, the affix method, the imagery method, the experience-based method, and the contextual analysis method. Which method to use should be determined on the basis of the morphological structures of the new words, the contexts they occur in, and the strengths and weaknesses of the learners. For example, if a new word occurs in a semantically or syntactically rich context, an instructor may choose the contextual analysis method. If the students have already learned this method, the instructor may just provide some hints and let the students solve these word recognition problems themselves. If a new word is formed through a derivational process and suitable for the affix method, the instructor may activate students' morphological knowledge and help them to transfer that knowledge to the new learning task. If a new word defies affix-analysis, occurs in a syntactically and semantically impoverished context, and is too abstract to evoke any imagery or to connect students' prior experience, a word list method may be used, even though research shows this method is the least effective of all (Simpson & Dwyer, 1991). In short, adult literacy instructors should remain open minded, experiment, never follow so-called authorities blindly, select instructional methods according to the learning context, and never hesitate to use a controversial method if the learning situation calls for it.

WHOLE CURRICULUM AND WHOLE ENVIRONMENTS

Learning to read and write is not for the sake of learning to read and write. Literacy education must be integrated across the curriculum, subsumed under real life problem solving situations, and carried out in the process of engaging learners in learning to control their own lives. For example, if a learner needs to pass the written test for a driver's license, the instructor may take the learner for a ride, explain traffic signs and regulations as they are driving along, and then help the learner with the driving manual. In helping the learner to prepare for the written test, the instructor integrates literacy development with solving real life problems, enables the learner to see the value of literacy, and thus motivate him/her to continue with his or her efforts in learning to read and write.

Instructors should work with the students to create an environment where the students feel wanted and respected, and where literacy development is encouraged and valued. The adult learning centers or the place where the instructors and the learner work together should be furnished with books, newspapers, printed materials at the students' reading levels. Visual and audio materials should be made available. If possible, tutoring or counselling services should be provided. Whenever adult learners come across any problems, they should have someone to turn to.

POLITICS AND DEMOCRACY

Literacy education is never a simple issue of learning to read and write. It is an issue of politics, democracy, and empowerment. It is about taking control of one's destiny and effecting social change. To promote democracy, literacy programs must not only preach it but practice it by engaging the learners in democratic processes over the curriculum development, instruction, and administration.

Literacy programs need to educate adult learners politically, raising their political consciousness of the social conditions under which they live, their right, their voice, their power, and ways to improve or change the social, political and economic conditions of their local communities and the society as a whole, and motivating them to actively participate in political dialogues concerning social and political issues and to exercise their political muscle in shaping the local and national politics. Through this process, the adult learners will empower themselves, control their destiny, and thus effect social change. In educating adult learners politically, adult literacy educators should integrate political and social agendas of adult education with literacy development. The reading materials need to reflect the current social and political issues facing the learners themselves, their local communities and the nation; the instructional events should be conductive to critical reflection over their lives and their environments; the educational process must be democratic; the goal must be for self-empowerment, for social justice, for social equality, and for social change.

SUMMARY

Whole language has revolutionized our thinking about schooling, teaching and learning. It has energized teachers to reflect over their practices, to contemplate existing theories, to experiment, and to develop their theoretical perspectives. It has empowered learners to take responsibilities for their own learning and take control over their destiny.

Within a whole language framework, adult literacy is not just about helping adults to learn to read and write. It is about all aspects of language learning and teaching. It means whole learners, whole teachers, whole methods, whole language skills and texts, whole curriculum and environment, and politics. It is about self-respect, liberation, empowerment, equality, and democracy. The six components are the essence of whole language. They should never be treated or regarded as atomic units. They are intertwined as a whole. Those principles should be implemented and manifested in every aspect of adult literacy programs.

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TEACHER BELIEFS ABOUT STAFF DEVELOPMENT VIA DISTANCE EDUCATION: A RESEARCH APPROACH IN PLANNING PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

A feasibility study to investigate the use of distance learning technologies to deliver staff development to ABE teachers in Nebraska was undertaken as a collaborative research effort. Qualitative data gathered by teachers and the researchers through interviews and participant observation yielded seven themes of teacher beliefs. The beliefs were considered in light of four commonly held assumptions about adult education practice. Results demonstrate that 1.) distance education is a viable option; 2.) teachers hold strong beliefs about staff development and its delivery via distance education, and have specific expectations /recommendations about the planning design; 3.) there appears to be a relationship between specific categories of teacher beliefs and the theoretical principles of adult education; and, 4) a participatory research approach to planning can illuminate implicit beliefs of the stakeholders, allowing planners to respond to the deeply held values of the potential audience when developing staff development programming.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Distance learning technologies are being increasingly relied upon as vehicles for the delivery of education which can surmount many of the long standing barriers to participation. As an area of scholarship distance education has been addressed by an increasing number of practitioners and theorists. For example, Verduin and Clark (1991) have created a typology of distance learning scenarios by synthesizing work drawn from Moore's (1973) theory of transactional distance, Keegan's (1986) definition of distance education, Beder's (1985) work on the structure of subject matter, and Pratt's (1988) notion of specialized competence. Willis (1993) and Cyrs (1990) have developed "how-to" guides for systematic instructional design in distance education. Dedicated journals and conferences have been instituted to discuss the phenomenon and disseminate cutting -edge scholarship and methods.

In Nebraska, a large and primarily rural mid-western state, the potential for both increasing access and minimizing travel costs has spurred recent development of numerous distance education courses and programs for students. In 1994, the State Department of Education's Adult Division considered attempting distance delivery for staff development of Adult Basic Education (ABE) teachers. This potential audience of teachers is almost exclusively caucasian women who teach ABE for perhaps five to seven hours per week, often in addition to their regular paid jobs in other capacities. About half teach in the three urban areas of the state, while the others teach in rural, often remote, areas. The teachers' sponsoring agencies are equally distributed between public school systems and community colleges. Thus, they have differing definitions of target populations, as well as differing levels of support for continuing professional education. Traditionally, those teachers able to leave work and home for up to four days have travelled for up to eight hours to a central location for two or more workshops each year. These workshops, characterized by a high degree of personal interaction, are highly regarded by the teachers. So before developing any distance education programming, the state ABE director commissioned a feasibility study to determine, 1) Can staff development for ABE teachers be efficiently and effectively delivered via distance learning technologies? and, 2) Which method of delivery is best? Two adult education researchers at UNL were asked to conduct the study.

The researchers heeded Ruth Clark's (1988) caveat that attempting to identify of the "best" delivery system is confounding because it is the wrong question. Clark posits that meta-analyses of research studies demonstrate that regardless of the system learning is most affected by the instructional methods used, so method should be the focus of inquiry. But the researchers believed that decision-making about a delivery system should be based upon the answer to a far more critical question: What do the teachers believe about staff development offered via distance learning technologies? This question is a recognition of the important and central role that teacher beliefs play in all aspects of practice. Teachers hold a set of implicit and value laden beliefs about their students, their teaching, and their own continuing education. Extensive reviews of the literature about teacher knowledge and teacher beliefs have been presented by Clandinin and Connelly (1988) and Pajares (1992). In the ABE literature specifically, Dirkx and Spurgin (1992) have explored teacher beliefs and the assumptions which ultimately structure the context of ABE classrooms. Such work is indirectly supported by Schon (1987) who suggests that professionals solve problems in their work by constructing theoretical propositions. The researchers wished to encourage this process but took further heed of Christopher Clark's (1988) recommendation about the role which holds the greatest promise for researching teacher education: "members of the research community [should] behave as *consultants* to the community of teacher educators" (p. 5). So, the researchers set out to ask questions which would help the teachers make explicit their beliefs about their own continuing education, and in the process, create a sense of ownership over the staff development delivery process. By locating the authority for exploring the problem within the experience of the teachers themselves, the researchers reflected their own constructivist epistemological position and responded to Hanna Fingaret's recommendation that ABE teachers be actively involved in all phases of planning for their work.

This study is predicated upon the assumption that teacher beliefs drive teacher behaviors and mediate the capacity of staff development to bring about meaningful change in practice. Therefore, the research questions posed were: (a) What kinds of beliefs do teachers hold about staff development? (b) What kinds of beliefs do they hold about distance learning technologies as a delivery system for staff development? and (c) How do these beliefs relate to commonly held assumptions which typically guide adult education practice?

METHODOLOGY

Qualitative methods using the long interview and indirect participant observation were used in a multi-phase approach to explore the research questions. In the fall of 1994, the researchers established a ten-member state-wide Task Force, composed of ABE teachers who were also acting directors or coordinators and had regular dialogue with both full and part-time teachers in their area of the state. The Task Force was invited to share the responsibility for determining the feasibility of distance education and selecting the optimal delivery system. An initial informal inquiry suggested that neither the Task Force members nor their colleagues had experience in distance education.

The first research question, "What kinds of beliefs do ABE teachers hold about staff development?" was approached as a problem posing activity. Task Force members were provided a general protocol and directed to visit with teachers in their areas, asking them to talk about what they believed to be important in a successful staff development experience. The Task Force members were then invited to report the results of their data gathering within the context of a distance technology experience. A two-hour video conference was arranged so that the second research question, "What beliefs do ABE teachers hold about distance learning technologies as a delivery system for staff development?" could be problematized as well. The meeting was videotaped, and the audio portion was transcribed. A follow-up phone interview with each Task Force member was conducted to elicit perceptions about and reactions to the experiential nature of the video-conference,their initial experience on state-wide "TV." A content analysis was performed on the transcript of the teachers' summary reports and the telephone interview notes. A report was then developed and distributed to Task Force members. Another follow-up phone interview was conducted to verify trustworthiness of the reported data and to provide an opportunity for the contribution of any additional observations or recommendations.

In order to address the third research question, "Do the teacher beliefs relate to commonly held assumptions which typically guide adult education practice?" the researchers accepted an invitation to present a program to the Educational Administration faculty members currently offering a pilot Ed.D. program via the state satellite system. The researchers independently prepared two program segments: "How Adults Learn", and "Teachers' Beliefs about Distance Learning." During the presentations and ensuing discussion, both the andragogical principles and the Task Force study results were strongly validated by the program experiences of the faculty engaged in providing distance education to teachers and administrators across the state. Thus, beliefs commonly held within the field of adult education as well as beliefs held by the ABE teachers were determined to be consistent with beliefs the teacher educators and their practitioner students across Nebraska. A final effort to explore the third research question involved the juxtaposition of the seven theme areas (technology, group issues, facilitators, time, access, sites, and cost) against four characteristics of the nature of the adult learners: 1) the importance and role of life experiences among adult learners; 2) the desire for a relatedness between content and the learners' context (i.e. the life or problem--centered nature of adults' interest in the learning, 3) the desire for self-directedness and control over content and the learning process, and 4) self-efficacy or the way the meaning of a learning situation is mediated through ones' own style and sense of self (Knowles, 1984). When the ABE teachers' beliefs and recommendations were arranged into a matrix with the adult education principles, a pattern emerged which served to illuminate the relationship between theory and practice.

FINDINGS

The overall result of the study was that distance education was perceived by the teachers as a feasible vehicle for staff development. Of the several delivery systems considered, a video conference (2-way fully interactive design) was their overwhelming choice. Specific results of the Task Force study indicated that teacher beliefs about staff development delivered via distance education could be represented in seven thematic areas. Furthermore, within each thematic area, the beliefs were clearly expressed as either descriptive, or prescriptive. The seven areas of teacher belief are as follows:

TECHNOLOGY: Teachers reported limited or no experience with distance learning. They shared strong positive feelings about the potential of the two-way interactive video conference system. They reported feeling high levels of apprehension prior to their first time on TV, but felt that it would actually be "fun" once they had participated several times. They believed that Distance Education could create a greater variety of staff development programs and that it is important for teachers to learn about the technology since its use will surely increase. The teachers recommended that "how-to-use" demonstrations be developed by an ABE person so that the on-air coach would be credible and familiar. They requested a pre-air workshop on the language of technology, and recommended that all programs be video taped for later reference by themselves and by those who could not attend the video conference.

GROUP INTERACTION ISSUES: Teachers expressed overwhelming concern that the traditional face-to-face conferences be retained. They believe that "hearing people's experiences and hearing what works for them" happens best in live group settings, and this may or may not be approximated through a technological medium. They adamantly believe distance education should not replace traditional staff development, but be offered as an additional option. Teachers made strong and consistent suggestions about the need for small groups at each site so "no one feels alone." They believe that interaction with other sites is less important than the ability of the on-site group to interact among themselves. Teachers recommend that opportunities be designed for side-bar conversations during planned pauses, and for "sitting around talking time" after a workshop is completed. They see a need for practice in the mechanics of taking turns talking on the air. They say that provision should be made to consistently validate each teacher's participation because it's hurtful if someone or some group leaves or goes off-line temporarily and "no one misses them."

FACILITATORS: Teachers believe that it is important that any workshop facilitator or presenter be a trained, qualified ABE teacher who is an interesting speaker capable of holding peoples' attention. Further, she or he should be experienced with the medium of distance learning and able to manage all sites simultaneously so no group feels forgotten or "left out." The teachers recommend that facilitators attend seriously to the issue of equitable air-time for all sites. A teacher acting as technical manager could control the screen and sound, freeing the presenter to focus on the content and audience exclusively. This could enhance the prospect for equity.

TIME: Teachers believe that staff development delivered via distance learning would be a more efficient use of time, and would avoid the overnight stays which serve as a great barrier to participation. Teachers recommend that although workshop duration should be influenced by program content, a three hour block of time is optimal. They further recommend it be scheduled so people can arrive, attend, and drive home all during daylight hours (Nebraska includes both central and mountain time zones and has many unlighted gravel roads).

SITES: The rooms outfitted for video-conferencing across the state hold from 10-25 people. Teachers feel that if the rooms are crowded or the sessions continue for too many hours, people will feel stifled. They recommend that group size be restricted in order to protect the class environment and encourage a sense of community.

ACCESS: Teachers believe that distance is an impediment to participation in staff development, especially for part-time teachers and volunteers. They believe that locally offered distance learning workshops would be appreciated and well attended. They recommend that triangulated sites be offered in each region so no person has more than a 30 minute drive. They further recommend that specialized workshops be offered to support the connection of people who are "one of a kind" in their region of the state, for example ESL teachers.

COST: Teachers believe that in those instances where intra-institution distance technologies have been established, eg.within a three school community college region, great savings in time, travel, and lodging costs have been demonstrated. They recommend that the State Department's ABE staff development funds be, in part, shifted from travel and lodging to distance education costs.

All elements of each of these thematic areas were then organized onto a matrix against four principles of adult education. When this was done, a pattern emerged. The teachers' beliefs expressed as observations/opinions (descriptive) all fell within the matrix cells of the learners' experience and life or problem/task contexts. The teachers' beliefs expressed as recommendations (prescriptive) all fell within the cells of self-directedness/control and self-efficacy/sense of self.

DISCUSSION

The findings demonstrate a pattern of relationship between the categories of practitioner beliefs and the theoretical principles. The teachers' most deeply held beliefs about 'how it is and what is important' seem to emanate from and relate to their own life contexts and experiences. The teachers' beliefs about 'what should be done so that staff development might best support and maintain those beliefs' seem to emanate from and relate to their sense of self as an autonomous agent. This suggests that teachers hold an implicit organization and relationship between personal and practice-related beliefs.

The dominant meta-theme emerging from the analysis of the teacher beliefs reflects their concern that learning occur in a relational and connected way. The concern is pervasive, evidenced in six of the seven themes. The teachers' desire to connect with the experiences of ABE teachers across the state while interacting with local colleagues and remaining near their families and students represents a preference for connected knowing, as illuminated in the work of Belenky and her colleagues (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Taroule, 1986). The expressed beliefs both provide a rationale for the implementation of distance education and offer insightful direction for instructional design.

The study commissioned here was ostensibly an inquiry into the use of technology. But because it was predicated on the assumption that the effectiveness of staff development is mediated through what teachers believe about staff development and about distance learning, it was accomplished through a participatory research-oriented approach to planning. This approach had the benefits of engaging and representing the stakeholders as well as addressing the political context. It allowed the planners to assess the consistency of the stakeholder recommendations with the principles of adult learning, and have confidence that the ensuing programs would be grounded theoretically and practically in the beliefs of the teachers for whom the program was planned. These results are expected to enhance the effectiveness of program planning and delivery, and maximize capacity of staff developments to bring about meaningful change in the ABE teachers' practices. The report of the research results had sufficient breadth and depth of data to support the creation of a guidebook for the delivery of staff development via video-conference. Additionally, the results had a sufficient level of rigor and grass-roots credibility to form the basis of a grant proposal to develop the first of the distance education staff development programs for ABE teachers in the state.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The successful results of this study, where both planners and stakeholders have acted as researchers, demonstrates the efficacy of a fully collaborative,participatory research process as the foundation for program planning. It is recommended that the technical and instructional design emphasis in distance education be balanced by investigation into the beliefs of the target audience, and that the practical outcomes of such a planning process be framed within appropriate theory. Such an approach should contribute both to improvement of practice and the elaboration of the deep theoretical understanding which undergirds our practice. Finally, it is recommended that further research efforts be applied to the relationship between teacher beliefs and the principles of adult education, as they may specifically apply to the delivery of staff development via distance education.

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DELIVERING UNIVERSITY ADULT EDUCATION IN A CONTESTED POLITICAL AND ETHNIC ENVIRONMENT

Winston Lawrence

ABSTRACT

The increasing tensions between ethnic groups in this post cold- war period, raises the question of how university adult educators who may belong to one ethnic group, may effectively develop adult education programs for members of other ethnic groups. This problem becomes complicated when race/ethnicity converge with political affiliations and serve to provide legitimacy and identity based on those characteristics. An analysis is made of some of the historical forces that have created the ethnic problem in the Guyanese society. The paper concludes by suggesting a model of intervention for adult educators working in ethnically-based communities. It asserts the central importance of acknowledging that one's involvement is highly political.

INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of the Institute of Adult and Continuing Education (formerly Department of Extra Mural Studies), University of Guyana, in 1976, attempts have been made to initiate and sustain adult education programs in some Indo Guyanese communities. This was consistent with the mandate given to it by its parent body, the University of Guyana, "to provide adult education services to all citizens". The execution of this mandate required that programs be conducted in communities scattered across the country. But the effectiveness of this intervention has been quite limited as a result of structural conditions in the institution. One such condition pertains to the fact that the staff of the Institute, except one, is made up of Afro Guyanese, who have traditionally been identified with the current opposition party, PNC; which was the ruling party for over 27 years and which has been perceived as quite undemocratic, repressive and discriminatory in its relations with Indo Guyanese. (In the 1993/94 Academic Year, the full-time academic staff consisted of twelve (12) Afro Guyanese and one (1) Indo Guyanese (University of Guyana, 1994).[1]

While the rhetoric of program planning enunciated by the Institute is "to take the University to the people", empirical evidence indicates that the majority of programs were conducted in Afro Guyanese villages and communities. Through a variety of accommodative strategies, programs were consistently delivered in those areas, while fewer programs were initiated in Indo Guyanese communities. (If we exclude Georgetown, of the thirteen(13) communities in which programs were held in the 1993/94 Academic year, only two were held in Indo Guyanese areas University of Guyana (1994). This might suggest that university based adult educators through their educational work, may actually have reinforced the system of ethnic division and gave legitimacy to the ruling party's policies, rather than facilitating integration and promoting democratization.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Analysts have suggested three possible explanations for the ethnic problems of the Guyanese society. The first is the plural theory construction of some colonial societies. This position has been articulated by M.G. Smith 1965, 1969; R.T Smith, 1970 and University of Chicago Anthropologist, L. Despres 1967,1975; building on the ideas of the Dutch Economist, J.S. Furnival. It was Furnival who first described the kind of discontinuity evident in the colonial Far East (Burma, Java), with their multiracial and multicultural characteristics. Furnival (1948) (cited in Kuper and Smith, 1969) saw no common will among a medley of peoples who "mix but do not combine". They live side by side and even in the market place there is occupational segmentation along ethnic lines. These plural societies were held together mainly by the presence of the colonial power.

Smith (1965,1969) and Despres (1967,1975) have applied this model to the Caribbean and to Guyana respectively. Essentially, they argue that historically, there has been the presence of various cultural sections such as Whites, Free Blacks, Chinese, Portuguese and Amerindians, with each group differing in kinship and mating patterns, family organization, education, religion and values system. The historical development of Guyana is seen within the context of these groups living side by side under colonial influence and being stratified through political and economic power as well as by race/ethnicity. Smith (1970), Rauf (1974) and Gopaul (1984) agree that the ethnic variable is an important factor in understanding the Guyanese society.

A second explanation may be seen in terms of Guyana as a postcolonial state and its need to create new structures of accommodation (Mitra, 1990). With the withdrawal of the colonizing power, the British, the two major ethnic groups began to contend for the power vacuum. In Guyana, Afro Guyanese (43% of the population) were the dominant group in governmental positions. They were highly visible in the civil service, nursing, teaching and the white collar professions. They also held political power through the Afro-based PNC party. Indo Guyanese (51% of the population) were engaged primarily in the agricultural and industrial sectors and were the landowners, rice farmers and businessmen. Thus we have an environment in which occupational stratification occurs along dimensions of ethnicity. More fundamental is the situation in which the Afro Guyanese had political power and occupied the government sector while Indo Guyanese controlled the economy through economic power emanating from their vast agricultural and business holdings.

The third explanation argues that generally, the society was stable, in terms of ethnic clashes, up to the 1950's. In that decade, what appears to be fresh seeds of ethnic conflict were sown. Spinner (1984:69) concludes that the split of political parties in 1953 ushered in the era of racial politics in Guyana. Prior to this point, the two foremost charismatic politicians - Cheddi Jagan, an Indo Guyanese, and Forbes Burnham, an Afro Guyanese - were united in the same political party, the Political Action Committee (PAC), formed in 1948. Then in 1953, under the name of People's Progressive Party (PPP), it won the first election that was conducted in the colony under universal adult suffrage. However, after 133 days in office, the British Government suspended the constitution and dissolved the Government on the grounds of it being "communist". (There is evidence that the US was a party to the British Government's action. (Hope 1985:53-54).

Following the suspension, the People's Progressive Party(PPP) became divided with Jagan leading one faction and Burnham leading the other. Eventually, Burnham broke away and formed his own party, the People's National Congress (PNC). It is interesting to observe that the split in the original PPP was not **racial** but **ideological**. (Hon Chan 1978:73). However, while more Afro Guyanese remained with the Dr Jagan, very few Indo Guyanese went with Burnham. Hon Chan makes the perceptive comment that though their strategies appeared nonracial,

> "Burnham and Jagan, primordial symbols of African and East Indian aspirations respectively, ineluctably attracted and drew together those whose history and blood ties would identify them with one or the other. The differences between Burnham and Jagan might revolve around political ideology and tactics, but for the masses, racial solidarity seemed the overriding concern." (p. 73-74).

At the next national elections in 1957, the use of the Hindi term "Apan Jaat" (meaning literally 'own race') as an election symbol by PPP followers virtually institutionalized ethnic voting and ethnic polarization. Hon Chan (1978) points out that in the 1957 elections, of the total Indo

Guyanese votes cast, it was estimated that 98% went to Dr Jagan's faction and 91% of the Afro Guyanese votes went to Burnham. In the next Elections of 1961, it was estimated that 95% of each of the East Indian and African votes went to the PPP and PNC respectively (p.74). The PPP under Dr Jagan won both the 1957 and 1961 elections. Subsequent to the 1961 elections, racial animosity seemed to have intensified to the point where between 1962 and 1964, racial violence flared. In the aftermath, 176 persons were killed, damage to the economy was over $4 million, 1,400 homes were destroyed and some 2,700 families, involving 15,000 persons became refugees in their own homeland. (Hon Chan 1978:74).

As a result of these clashes, people who belonged to a particular ethnic group and were in the minority in various communities, were forced to leave and find residence in a community in which their ethnic group was dominant. Communities were therefore made homogenous as a result of the conflict and this naturally reinforced group feelings and solidarity. This situation is compounded when one incorporates the prior homogenization process in the period after slavery. At that time freed slaves had set up villages away from the sugar estates, engaging in farming and refusing to return to work on the estates. Indo Guyanese, who were brought from India as indentured laborers to replace the freed slaves were given lands on which to farm and cultivate rice, close to the sugar estates, in order to induce them to remain in the society, rather than accepting stipends and returning to India. Being in close proximity to the factories also assured the provision of a ready supply of labor. Thus homogenous Indo Guyanese communities were established near to the sugar estates while Afro Guyanese villages were set up not far away.

The result of these two periods of homogenization of communities was an accumulation of these communities, with citizens who have common interests and are of the same ethnicity. The continued homogenization of communities occurred within a volatile political environment which had many friction points occasioned by charges of rigged elections, overt racial discrimination, increased authoritarian rule and deteriorating economic and social conditions.

It is against this background that the Institute has had to work in different communities, especially in Indo Guyanese communities. From what has been established so far it is evident that working in Afro Guyanese communities is less difficult. Generally, the Institute's staff who are predominantly Afro Guyanese, are likely to be accepted ethnically and politically in the Afro Guyanese communities. On the other hand, there has been resistance to Afro Guyanese staff members in attempting to develop educational programs for Indo Guyanese. The University staff member is caught in an unenviable situation in which public attitudes and private practice do not converge. The contradiction is well expressed by Despres (1975) who points out that in Guyana there is a public norm of non-racialism, but to the careful observer " gradually...this general impression begins to change....It may begin with observations at the seawall ...or in Botanical Gardens...it will be observed that Africans and Indians sit or walk separately and they do not frequently greet one other or join in conversation". (p.105).

THE MODEL

How then could the Institute develop appropriate ways of responding to the challenges described above? What are the some elements in determining a workable approach to intervention in ethnic areas?

I. In the first place, we will have to acknowledge that our intervention into the community is **political**. One of the pitfalls of the adult education enterprise is that frequently, adult educators pretend that our work is neutral and apolitical. Julius Nyerere (1976) former President of Tanzania, recognized this sometime ago when he addressed an International Adult Education Conference in Dar-Es-Salaam. He said, d " Making the people of a village aware that their malaria can be avoided, for example, will cause them to make demands upon the larger community in which they live..at least they will demand drugs, or insect spray, or teachers....they will become discontented...adult education is thus a highly political activity. Politicians are sometimes more aware of this fact than educators" (p.12). It is therefore important at the outset to recognize the nonneutrality of the educational effort. The intervention and conduct of programs will have political implications and this must be addressed.

II. Secondly, the nature of the ethnic cleavage demands that we should think of expanding opportunities for the democratic participation of community members and the building up of civil society. The Institute must therefore have a clearly articulated strategy where it sees the creation of a civil society as a goal, rather than just the establishment of programs in the community. In the context of working with ethnically based communities, I believe that this understanding is fundamental if we are to promote democratization and integration. Very frequently our orientation is to desire to be able to provide programs in the community. But what are these programs for? With the larger goal in sight, we would consciously work with a community to provide spaces for community groups and to build its social capital to enhance community development. It is here too that the political dimension surfaces, for the Institute will need to involve the social and political groups that operate in the community. Linkages with the Regional Administration as well as with the Ministry responsible for Community Development are essential in accessing resources. In other words, working with legitimate representatives of the community will ensure that educational efforts are not seen from a racial perspective but as originating from within the community itself.

III. The intervention of the Institute however, will not be successful without active community participation. A Community Education Council will need to be established. This group should be formed after meetings are held with community groups and they are given the opportunity to elect a smaller group which will be selected from the committee. This small group will now be responsible for working with the Institute to identify and implement educational programs. While there may be a smaller group that assists to "manage" the development of activities, efforts should always be made to ensure that information is filtered back to community groups. One particular danger in attempting to build community groups is that management committees arrogate power to themselves and become exclusive clubs thereby excluding the groups that created them in the first place. One of the objectives here is to ensure that the Institute's staff are not perceived as entering to "impose" programs but that the programs selected should represent the legitimate aspirations and wishes of the broad community.

IV Another vital element in the model is the ascertaining of educational needs of the community. To promote ownership and ensure that members of the community feel a sense of commitment to the effort, we must have the community determine the kinds of programs that it wants. A participatory approach could be utilized through which community members have the opportunity to ascertain the educational problems of their community and to determine the nature of programs which would address those needs. Through this process, community members will become involved in the creation of their own local knowledge, which will be utilized in designing the curriculum. The advantage of this approach is that it will allow for the exploration of larger societal issues rather than the limited content of an imposed curriculum. In such a way, the empowerment of the community would be promoted.

V. A fundamental part of the Institute's approach also must be institutional. It is imperative for the Institute to ensure that the staff is representative of the people of the country. We need to ensure a diversity of staff by employing more Indo Guyanese professionals. Inclusiveness must begin within the institution if our efforts at integration are to be seen as credible. Allied with this effort must be staff development programs which are aimed at developing a critical consciousness among staff members of the need to address wider issues of inclusion of other groups such as Amerindians in our curriculum and programming. Clearly this requires strong leadership and visioning (Senge,1990).

VI The final element is that of implementation. This will allow for the adoption of programs aimed at different target populations. Several projects could be implemented simultaneously, thus providing a sense of accomplishment for several groups at the same time. Careful monitoring is essential for successful implementation, therefore clear lines of responsibility would need to be assigned. Closely allied to this stage is an ongoing evaluation of the process and products of the effort. This system of evaluation must be an integral part of all activities, and as the community becomes more involved, it should be given greater evaluation responsibilities.

CONCLUSION

The peace which the end of the cold war promised has not yet been achieved. At the present time, there are increased cleavages and ethnic conflicts seem to be the order of the day. Adult educators are called upon to work frequently with groups of a different ethnicity. We must therefore recognize the nonneutrality of educational interventions and seek to build a democratic culture even within those ethnic communities that are different from ours. These communities may be ethnically distinct but we cannot impose tolerance and understanding. What external agencies could do is to provide educational experiences which could assist groups in fostering their own identity, one with which it could justifiably be proud.

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[1] Guyana's ethnic population is:
Indo Guyanese - 51%; Afro Guyanese - 42%;
Amerindians (Native Indians) - 4%;
Chinese/Europeans - 3%

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INCORPORATING SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING INTO THE CLASSROOM

Huey B. Long

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses two main ideas: (a) why adult educators should be interested in incorporating self-directed learning into the classroom, and (b) theory and techniques supportive of self-direction in learning. The self-directed learning literature is currently one of the most robust adult education topics. Despite the numerous publications on self-directed learning (SDL) and a plethora of definitions most definitions of SDL can be subsumed under one of three broad conceptualizations. Even though differences exist among the conceptualizations they all include a common element: the learning process. In most theories of learning, the learning process is associated with motivation. Following Deci and Ryan (1985) it is suggested that SDL is closely associated with intrinsic motivation, but not necessarily limited to it. Extrinsic motivation can, at times, underlie SDL.

Some barriers to SDL are identified, and it is suggested that barriers such as learner anxiety must be identified by the educator to develop and use techniques that support SDL. Procedures and techniques useful to incorporating SDL into the classroom are identified and discussed briefly .

Individual and group techniques are discussed. Given the nature of classroom learning, group activity is often the norm. There are techniques to facilitate individual student's engagement in group activities, however.

INTRODUCTION

SDL is one of the most robust research topics in recent adult education literature. A set of three books of abstracts (Confessore and Long, 1992; Long and Confessore, 1992; Long and Redding, 1991) identifies over 500 items not including the learning projects research following Allen Tough's (1967) work. The University of Oklahoma and the University of Georgia have published 11 books about SDL containing approximately 180 chapters by an array of authors from business and industry, public schools, governmental agencies and higher education. Given the bulk of the SDL literature it is not surprising that numerous definitions have been applied to the term.

Three general conceptualizations seem to include most of the definitions of SDL:

1. SDL as a concept that emphasizes the social independence of the learner as presented by Tough(1967) in his learning projects idea.
2. SDL as pedagogical or andragogical techniques such as the use of learning contracts and other techniques following the work of Malcolm Knowles (1970).
3. Self-directed learning as a psychological activity as espoused by Long (1989).

Because of differences in interest, writers choose to emphasize either the degree to which the learner is socially engaged while learning, or the development of technique. While important differences exist among the conceptualizations, they also share a common interest in the learning proces. Applied and theoretical investigations of SDL usually are concerned with facilitating or improving the learning process. The premise underlying Long's (1989) conceptualization is that SDL cannot be explained without some reference to a psychological framework.

Thus this paper fundamentally is concerned with the interaction of psychological aspects of the learning process and teaching techniques in SDL. More specifically, the focus is upon how to incorporate SDL into the classroom. Adult educators are correctly interested in independent learning or what Candy (1990) refers to as autodidaxy. Most, however, function in educational frameworks that feature the classroom method. Therefore, they are challenged to adopt techniques that facilitate self-direction into the classroom environment. To effectively accomplish the goal, however, we need to return to the psychological conceptualization.

THEORY AND TECHNIQUES

Deci and Ryan's (1985) motivation theory is a useful tool for the purposes of this paper. Succinctly stated, Deci and Ryan posit two kinds of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is represented as the impulse or energizing force to do something that comes from within the individual. In contrast, under extrinsic motivation the impulse is stimulated by some kind of external source. At times it may be difficult to always separate the two, while in other instances the differences are apparent.

The similarity between the intrinsically motivated learner and the self-directed learner is obvious. Both manifest ownership in the learning process. They initiate, they pose questions, they are not limited by the parameters of the assignment, and so forth. Most educators have had experiences with two very different kind of learners: the first kind is the learner that makes us feel as if we are caught on his or her coat tails and are going along for an exciting stimulating exploration; the second kind is the learner who will not move an inch without specific detailed instructions, and who makes us feel that both of us are neck-deep in quicksand. The former is representative of the intrinsically motivated self-directed learner while the latter is representative of the extrinsically motivated dependent learner.

It is likely that we usually prefer the exhilaration of working with the self-directed learner more than the drudgery of slogging through the swamps with the dependent learner on our backs. Unfortunately, professors, teachers and trainers often contribute to classroom environments that even limit the Indiana Jones' of self-directed learning. As a result, much classroom learning is not about a search for hidden treasures or exciting creation; instead it is more like a convention of house painters watching paint dry. While it is unclear how much the classroom environment will change a individual's approach to learning, Draves (1995) says that 25% of learning depends on the physical environment. If that is true, we could speculate that at least 25% depends upon the psychological environment. Therefore, it is not unreasonable to suggest that adult educators can effect at least 50% or more of learning by the psychological and physical environments they establish. The literature identifies some of the educational techniques that are associated with self-directed learning. Some of these are noted and discussed in the next section.

PROCEDURES

To successfully incorporate SDL into the classroom the adult educator needs to systematically diagnose potential barriers and take steps to address them. A typical classroom of adult learners will contain individuals whose propensity to be self-directing in their learning will range from very low to very high. Usually, the individuals who are identified as low in self-direction pose the greatest challenge. They often require support in the early stages of self-direction. Barriers to SDL are of two kind. One kind of barrier is provided by the structure of the classroom activities. More will be said about this kind of barrier later. A second kind of barrier is psychological. For example, Long and Stubblefield (1994) discovered people low in self-directed learning readiness seem to be controlled by daily life events, that is, they are swept along with the flow of life. In contrast, people high in the attribute seem to take control of their lives and manage their environments. If we assume the existence of such characteristics among learners, teachers need to provide environments that help low self-directed learners develop attitudes and skills needed to take control in their lives. An awareness of barriers to SDL is important if the adult educator is to successfully create an environment conducive to self-direction in learning. Barriers include the following:

1. Lack of learning goals.
2. Fear and anxiety.
3. Lack of motivation.
4. Not understanding why the matter at hand should not be learned.
5. Avoidance of personal responsibility.

6. Negative self-perception.
7. Blaming others.

Some techniques to make the structural environment more supportive of self-directed learning reported in the literature are as follows:

1. Engage in individual planning activity with each learner to identify short-term and long-term (within the context of the course) goals and learning activities. Very dependent learners will require models and illustrations to help identify and formulate goals and activities. Models and illustrations may be based on work done by other students in other courses. Or, the teacher may create examples based on experience. Systematic and specific evaluation methods, times, and activities should be set jointly. The teacher should offer suggestions, based on previous experience, to the uncertain student.
2. Help dependent learners with goal setting. Learners low in self-direction perform best when near-term goals are set and reviewed. Course learning goals and objectives can be broken into sub-goals to be achieved sequentially (Von Bergen, 1995)
3. Provide the learner with an opportunity to apply an existing skill or competency to a new learning goal. For example, if learners are competent computer users provide the opportunity to use that skill in the existing course. If learners have artistic skills, etc. provide an opportunity for them to use their existing competency.

Individualized techniques should be accompanied by group techniques that includes some of the following:

1. Asking stimulating questions.
2. Providing choices among learning activities and resources.
3. Involving the learners in identification of challenges, problems, questions and tasks.
4. Using learner generated questions.
5. Identifying paradoxes and dilemmas to be explained.

Some illustrative group activities that incorporate SDL in classroom learning are discussed briefly below:

1. Encourage creativity in addressing a learning task or goal. Learners should be encouraged to think of different ways to present and illustrate an idea. For example, a complex idea may be simplified by a graphic representation using arrows, flow charts, icons, pictographs, and so forth. Sometimes key concepts can be captured in a jingle, poem or in other forms.
2. Provide an opportunity to turn the work of learning into play. Stimulate learners to develop games and similar activities to accomplish learning. Cross-word puzzles and similar mind-teasers are helpful in recalling facts and concepts.
3. Use humor. Humor is helpful in establishing rapport, which, is critical to trust. The learner who is afraid to be self-directing sometimes can be made more secure when a trusting relationship with the teacher has developed. Humor can be worked into the learning schedule randomly or systematically. Cartoons, colorful and humorous neck-ties, far-out tee shirts and weird sweaters add to, and reinforce, oral humor.

Space limitations prevent further discussion and summarization.

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TOWARD A THEORY OF LEARNING SCIENCE FOR SCIENTIFIC LITERACY AMONG PROFESSIONAL EDUCATORS

Daniel R. Olson

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine faculty members' perceptions of scientific literacy and the methods they use to learn science. This was a qualitative study using a discursive approach to generate grounded theory. Questionnaires and interviews were used to gather the data. The results of this study indicate that educators have varying beliefs and expectations about scientific literacy. A theoretical model for how educators learn science emerged from the data. Learning science by faculty members teaching in the general sciences consists of three overlapping and interwoven elements: interest, continuing education, and the popular media. A lack of interest, lack of scientific continuing education, and the influence of the popular media are aspects of learning science by faculty members teaching non-science disciplines.

INTRODUCTION

Scientific literacy constitutes the knowledge a person needs to read about and understand scientific public issues. According to Hazen and Trefil (1991), a scientifically literate person uses facts, vocabulary, concepts, and philosophy in everyday discourse. In short, people who can discuss scientific events, understand scientific news, and read scientific articles within meaningful contexts are scientifically literate (Hazen and Trefil, 1991).

Previous survey research has indicated that only about six percent of American adults can be classified as scientifically literate (Miller, 1989). The implications for this low level of literacy revolve around several different arguments. First, since all citizens will eventually be faced with public issues that contain scientific components, every citizen should have some level of scientific literacy (Hazen and Trefil, 1991). A scientifically illiterate electorate contributes to the further stratification of society, as important scientific decisions that affect everyone will increasingly be made by a small proportion of educated elites (Miller, 1983). Second, as the technological and information revolution continues, individuals seeking new and alternative employment opportunities will no doubt find much of their science education inadequate as they strive to acquire new skills. Finally, knowledge of science is necessary to understand the intellectual climate of an era (Hazen and Trefil, 1991). All citizens need an understanding of science to make informed decisions on issues such as the environment, medicine, and diet (Clewis, 1990).

According to Hazen and Trefil (1991), the scientifically literate person is knowledgeable in all scientific fields. Formal educational institutions (universities, secondary, and primary schools) typically teach one science during a designated time period. Thus, there is a fundamental mismatch between the type of knowledge taught in the schools and the type of knowledge expected of a scientifically literate person (Hazen and Trefil, 1991). For students still in school, other courses can be taken to create cohesiveness among the scientific fields. For the great majority of Americans out of school, scientific information must be made available in other forms (Hazen and Trefil, 1991).

Adult continuing education can play a crucial role in facilitating science training and education throughout an adult's life. Books, such as Science Matters: Achieving Scientific Literacy (Hazen and Trefil, 1991) and the Dictionary of Scientific Literacy (Brennan, 1992), can play a role in educating the public about scientific terms and concepts. Television is the most frequently used information source (National Science Board, 1993). Programs from the NOVA television series have been used to help adults understand the scientific issues that underlie public policy (Gagné and Burkman, 1982). Radio and print are also important media. Nearly two-thirds of American adults listen to an hour or more of news every day. Fifty-six percent of adults read newspapers daily, and 28 percent regularly read a newsmagazine (National Science Board, 1993). Adult continuing education programming could utilize the existing media and develop curriculum models that could be used for planning the educational and training experiences of adults (Langenbach, 1993).

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine faculty members' perceptions of scientific literacy and the methods they use to learn science. Knowledge of such perceptions and methodology has the potential to begin to lay groundwork for the development of a theory of adult learning of science for scientific literacy. In addition, it is crucial to understand how adults learn science in order to design the most effective continuing education science programs. Therefore, the findings were also used to suggest possible revisions in adult continuing education science offerings.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Jon Miller (1989) suggests that the scientifically literate person understands the processes of science, basic scientific terms and concepts, and the impact of science on technology. Citing national survey data that was used to measure these three dimensions of scientific literacy, Miller (1989) combined the indices and determined that only six percent of American adults can be classified as scientifically literate.

Previous studies have found that scientific literacy is strongly associated with college education, that exposure to a college-level science course is important, and that men are more likely than women to be scientifically literate (Miller, 1987). Among college graduates, the highest levels of scientific literacy are found in persons majoring in scientific and technical fields, followed by social science majors. The lowest levels of scientific literacy in the adult population are among adults with a college major in education (Miller, 1989).

The findings from these previous studies have been generated from national data sets that have surveyed and tested respondents on the three dimensions of scientific literacy (Miller, 1989). These quantitative studies, however, required that the answers given by the respondents were judged by the researcher as to whether they constituted aspects of scientific literacy. In order to glean a more complete understanding of adult scientific literacy, open-ended interviews were used in this study to investigate the meanings and perceptions of scientific literacy for a specific group of adults. It is crucial to understand how adults ascribe meaning to scientific literacy if further education efforts to increase their levels of scientific literacy are to be successful.

Educators were chosen as the respondents for this study. Jon Miller (1989) states that scientific literacy requires some level of formal science and mathematics instruction. Since educators will be teaching these courses, among other courses, they are in a prime position to relate their scientific literacy to their students. Thus, the findings from this study, in conjunction with Miller's (1987, 1989) data, could be used to improve the science education of educators, and by extension, the science education of the students they teach.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study were to: examine the meaning of scientific literacy, examine how faculty learn science and look for differences in learning science among a group of faculty members from general science disciplines as compared to faculty group members from other disciplines, and to look for differences in learning science between male and female faculty members.

METHODS

This was a qualitative study involving a discursive approach (Smith, 1982) to generate grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). The categories, themes, hypotheses, and subsequent theory that emerged were grounded in the data.

Consent forms were received from 30 selected participants. Fourteen of the participants were teaching general science courses, and sixteen of the participants were teaching a variety of other courses. Each of the participants also received a questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to collect demographic information and written responses concerning each participant's definition of scientific literacy and their opinions about various aspects of scientific literacy. All of the participants were interviewed. The interviews were tape-recorded and used to glean additional information about the meanings and issues of scientific literacy.

The data were analyzed utilizing the computer program AQUAD, which is a program for the generation of theory on the basis of qualitative data. Throughout the duration of the study, transcribed interview and questionnaire data were coded and entered into AQUAD. The coded data relating to the meaning of scientific literacy was grouped under three metacodes, representing the three indices of scientific literacy previously described by Miller (1989). The coded data relating to how faculty learn science was grouped under two metacodes, one representing professional methods and the other one representing the popular media. Finally, linkages were then developed among the coded concepts.

DATA AND ANALYSIS

MEANING OF SCIENTIFIC LITERACY

A composite view of faculty definitions indicate that scientific literacy is characterized by the ability to read science, understand scientific terms, and communicate with others. Typical definitions of scientific literacy from faculty teaching in general science disciplines included:

- Scientific literacy is "the ability to read, comprehend, and assess science articles in newspapers, journals, and magazines."
- Scientific literacy is "a combination of a reasonable vocabulary of scientific and technical terms and a basic understanding of scientific thinking."
- Scientific literacy means "being able to communicate effectively using the scientific language."

Typical definitions of scientific literacy from faculty teaching in other disciplines included:

- Scientific literacy means "the ability to communicate and function in a scientific position."
- Scientific literacy is "how capable a person is understanding ideas and concepts that are presented to them through everyday living, be that through work or the news media."
- Scientific literacy is "the ability to read, understand, and employ science and scientific terminology."

LEARNING SCIENCE

When asked how they learned science, faculty members teaching in the general sciences expressed consensus through their comments:

- "I employ professional journals, newspapers, newsmagazines, radio, television, and professional seminars to keep abreast of scientific advances."
- "I use professional associations, newspapers, television, and radio to learn science."

Typical comments from faculty members teaching in other disciplines included:

- "The methods I employ to stay current of scientific advances are newspapers, magazines, and television."
- "I do watch television and listen to the radio, particularly public radio has a lot of scientific information so I do hear about scientific developments."

Faculty members teaching in the general sciences identified professional avenues (journals, meetings, associations) and the general media (television, newspapers, newsmagazines) as mechanisms by which they learn science. By contrast, faculty members teaching in other disciplines identified the general media as the primary mechanism by which they learn science.

Overall, there were no differences in the way male and female faculty members learned science. Learning science through professional avenues or through the general media was dependent on the discipline taught by the individual faculty member, rather than gender.

Faculty members teaching in the general sciences characterized their learning of science as interest-based and dependent on continuing education and the popular media. Faculty members teaching in other disciplines characterized their learning of science as non-interest based and mostly dependent on the popular media. Theoretical models for learning science follow.

THEORETICAL MODELS

Faculty Members Teaching in the General Sciences

A theoretical model for learning science by faculty members teaching in the general sciences consists of three overlapping and interwoven elements: interest, continuing education, and the popular media (Figure 1).

Interest emerges from the backgrounds of the faculty members and the scientific disciplines they teach. At the university level, all of the respondents held the doctoral degree in a scientific discipline. The doctorate is a research degree, and all of the respondents were currently conducting or had conducted active research in their respective disciplines. Research and interest are related in that research is conducted into areas of interest, and the results of such research often contribute further to the development of interest. At the community college level, all of the respondents held masters degrees. Although none of these respondents were conducting active research, interest is maintained by advancements in their fields and their desire to improve classroom teaching. At the high school level, respondents held bachelors or masters degrees. Similar to the community college respondents, their interest is maintained by advancements in their fields and their desire to improve classroom teaching.

Continuing professional education is a crucial component for remaining current in a field. All of the faculty members teaching in the general sciences identified some aspect of continuing professional education as a mechanism for how they learn science and keep current with scientific developments.

Finally, the popular media plays a significant role in contributing to the learning of science by these professionals. Television, radio, newspapers, and/or newsmagazines were identified by all of the respondents as a further mechanism for how they learn science and keep current with scientific developments.

The interrelationships among interest, continuing education, and the popular media are depicted in the model (Figure 1, solid arrows). Teaching in a general science discipline contributes to an interest in science for these professionals. Their interest in science encourages them to learn more through their continuing education offerings and the popular media. The knowledge gained through continuing education and the popular media furthers their interest in science.

Faculty Members Teaching in Other Disciplines

A theoretical model for learning science by faculty members in other disciplines consists of three elements: lack of interest, lack of continuing education, and the popular media (Figure 1).

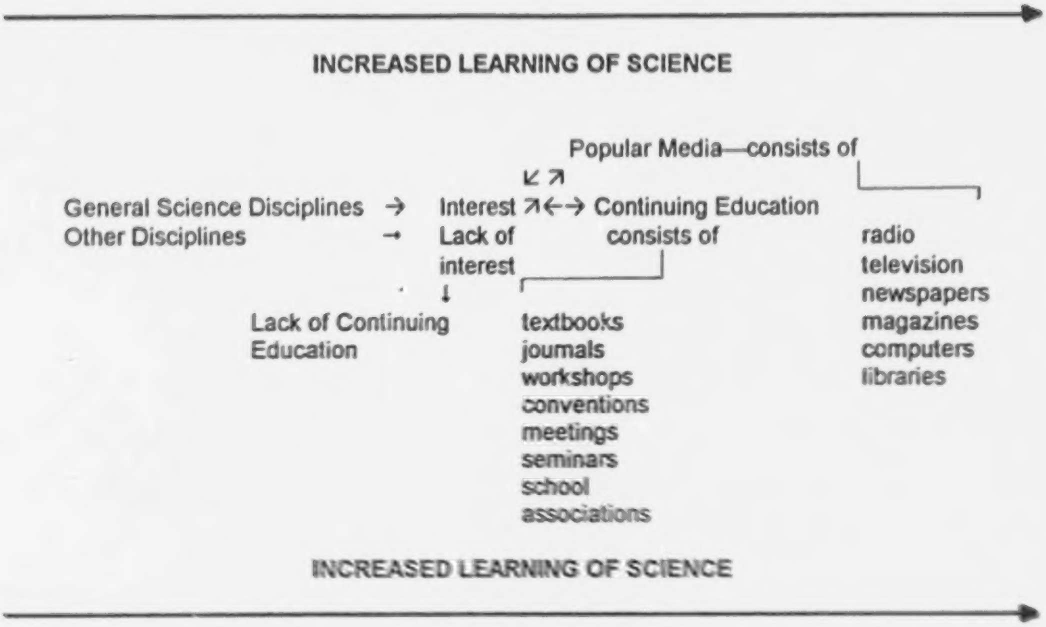
INCREASED LEARNING OF SCIENCE
Popular Media—consists of
General Science Disciplines
Other Disciplines
Interest
Lack of interest
Continuing Education consists of
radio
television
newspapers
magazines
computers
libraries
Lack of Continuing Education
textbooks
journals
workshops
conventions
meetings
seminars
school
associations
INCREASED LEARNING OF SCIENCE

Figure 1. A theoretical model for learning science by faculty members teaching in the general sciences and faculty members teaching in other disciplines.

Lack of interest emerges from the backgrounds of the faculty members and the disciplines they teach. Regardless of the degree held, lack of interest in science was a consistent theme from the respondents at the university, community college, and high school levels.

Continuing education for these professionals contributes to improving their knowledge and skill in their respective disciplines, but contributes little or nothing to their learning of science.

Finally, the popular media plays a role in contributing to the learning of science by these professionals. Scientific information is available through a variety of media, but these professionals lack of interest often prevents them from advancing their scientific knowledge.

The relationship between lack of interest and lack of continuing education is depicted in the model (Figure 1, dotted arrow). Teaching in a discipline other than science contributes to a general lack of interest in science. Lack of interest in science provides little impetus to pursue science knowledge through continuing education, and the continuing education of these professionals contributes little or nothing to their learning of science. The popular media contributes to the learning of science by these professionals, and may generate some interest in this group.

IMPLICATIONS

Although there were some commonalties in the definitions of scientific literacy by the educators in this study, scientific literacy was defined in many ways. Even among experts, Robert Hazen and James Trefil (1991) define scientific literacy as the ability to discuss scientific events, understand scientific news, and read scientific articles. Jon Miller (1989) defines scientific literacy as an understanding of the processes of science, knowledge of basic science terms, and the impact of science on technology.

Rather than utilize an external definition of scientific literacy, this study was designed to investigate the meanings and perceptions of scientific literacy. The results of this study indicate that educators have varying beliefs and expectations about scientific literacy. This suggests that assessing the scientific literacy of people by using controlled tests may be inadequate. Since the beliefs and expectations of the people administering the test may be different than the beliefs and expectations of the people being tested, it may be that knowledge of the cognitive structures of people may provide learning experiences whereby these structures might be modified.

This study generated an emergent theory for how educators learn science. For adults out of school, continuing education is the primary mechanism for transmitting science information. According to Hazen and Trefil (1991), the scientifically literate person is knowledgeable in all areas of science. Thus, it is possible for scientists and non-scientists to be scientifically illiterate. An interdisciplinary approach to continuing education could incorporate relevant and useful scientific information in continuing education offerings. Science and non-science disciplines are interrelated, and there is a role for continuing education to bridge gaps among the disciplines.

The model (Figure 1) in this study was generated from a specific population of educators in unique settings. While the results of this study cannot be generalized to other settings, it is anticipated that other educators in other settings will learn science in many of the same ways. Hopefully, further studies will clarify the learning of science and build upon the theory.

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GOAL SETTING FOR THE 21ST CENTURY: A STUDY OF PUBLIC PERCEPTIONS OF ADULT BASIC EDUCATION

Richard A. Orem
Patricia Hunsaker

ABSTRACT

In 1992 the executive board of the Illinois Adult and Continuing Educators' Association created a task force to study the major forces confronting the profession in providing more effective adult basic education to the growing population of adult learners in need of basic skills "to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsbilities of citizenship" as outlined in the Goals 2000 federal legislation. The task force was comprised of 14 stakeholders, including representatives of federally-funded programs, community-based organizations, corrections, and higher education. The task force decided to conduct a systematic study of adult basic education as outlined in the charge to the task force, including for the first time a statewide study of public perceptions of adult basic education in the state.

The major research question facing this task force was: What are the major perceptions of the effectiveness of adult basic education in Illinois held by program participants, program providers, elected officials, community leaders, and the general public? In order to answer the major research question, the task force: 1) surveyed existing literature of national and state studies on the effectivenss of adult basic education programs; 2) conducted systematic focus groups consisting of representatives of program participants and program providers; 3) interviewed selected state and local policy makers, and representative employers of graduates of adult basic education programs in the state; and 4) conducted a statewide phone survey to determine perceptions shared by the general public of adult basic education in the state.

The phone survey revealed significant support for programs from those who are aware of programs in their local communities. Nearly half (49.5%) of the 800 respondents admitted to having no knowledge of local programs for adult basic education. But of those who admitted to some knowledge of such programs, 83.4% thought they were effective. In other words, local programs need to do a better job of educating their local community about their work.

The findings from this study have been used to develop a set of recommendations to guide the state association's activity in the coming years, including the development of more effective lobbying efforts with state legislators, and the development of more effective staff development activities in collaboration with state and regional funding agencies.

INTRODUCTION

The challenge of educating every adult American to become literate and capable of competing in a global economy by the year 2000 is the challenge facing every adult educator in the USA. How we accomplish this goal is still a subject of considerable discussion and uncertainty.

In 1992 the executive board of the Illinois Adult and Continuing Educators' Association (IACEA) charged a task force to "review long range plans addressing the goal of a citizenry of literate, lifelong learners; funding of adult education; student access to adult education; programmatic and fiscal accountability and assessment systems for adult education; adult education delivery systems, and other issues that are related to providing a comprehensive adult education system in our state." (Dries, 1992) The fourteen members of this task force represented program providers and other stakeholders from across the state, including public schools and community colleges, corrections, and community based organizations.

METHODOLOGY

As a preliminary step in this process, the task force conducted focus groups at state meetings of adult educators, and locally with staff and students of adult basic education programs to gather answers to these questions:

1. What are some of the greatest problems facing adult education students today?
2. What changes would you like to see in adult education?
3. What do you think the government should do for adults who have not finished high school?
4. What do you think adult education programs should look like in five to ten years from now?

Concurrently with these focus groups, members of the task force were asked to interview other stakeholders, including potential employers and policy leaders, with questions similar to those which guided focus group discussions.

Armed with these data, the task force then conducted a systematic study of the perceptions held by the general public in Illinois regarding the effectiveness of these programs of adult basic education. IACEA contracted with the Center for Governmental Studies of Northern Illinois University to sponsor a block of questions as part of the 1994 Illinois Policy Survey. The Center for Governmental Studies at NIU has conducted the survey annually since 1984. The poll is open to researchers, media, public agencies, and public interest groups wanting to buy questions. Data collection services were provided by the Public Opinion Laboratory.

The indicators of public perceptions are based on a telephone survey of the Illinois adult population, aged 18 and older, and conducted from October 6 to November 7, 1994. Interviewers spent almost 300 hours talking with 800 residents of Illinois and recording their conversations. The data were collected using the Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewer (CATI) technique. A central polling site was used with supervisors monitoring the interviewers. The CATI system allows data to be entered into the computer during the actual interview process, and provides automatic branching of questions and checks for errors.

Sampling error for a sample of 800 individuals is plus or minus 3.5 percent. This means that 95 times out of 100 results of the poll can be expected to fall within 3.5 percent of what we would find if during the same time period we interviewed all English-speaking adults in Illinois in households with a telephone. Sampling error among subgroups (e.g., gender, region) will exceed 3.5 percent and will vary with the size of each group. In addition to sampling error, any survey contains unknown levels of error from other sources, such as question wording or question order, respondent misunderstandings, and other practical difficulties of measuring public opinion. (Dran, p. 6)

RESULTS

Questions contracted by IACEA were developed by the IACEA Task Force after more than 18 months of conducting focus groups and interviews with adult educators, participants in adult basic education programs, community leaders, and elected officials. The following tables display some of the results of the 800 interviews completed by NIU's Center for Governmental Studies as part of their annual statewide policy survey focusing specifically on the questions measuring the general public's perception of the need for and the effectiveness of adult basic education programs in Illinois.

Question 1: Thinking about adults age 18 and over in your community, about how many do you think lack skills in basic reading and writing that they need for jobs and everyday living?

Table 1
How many adults in community lack basic skills?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
A lot	182	22.7	22.7
Some	341	42.6	65.3
Hardly any	242	30.2	95.5
Won't answer	4	.5	96.0
Don't know	32	4.0	100.0
Total	800	100.0	

Question 2: How about Illinois as a whole? About how many adults do you think lack skills in basic reading and writing that they need for jobs and everyday living?

Table 2
How many adults in Illinois lack basic skills?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
A lot	302	37.7	37.7
Some	405	50.7	88.4
Hardly any	36	4.4	92.8
Won't answer	6	.8	93.6
Don't know	52	6.4	100.0
Total	800	100.0	

Discussion. Respondents tend to think of their community as having fewer members lacking basic reading and writing skills than in the state as a whole. In other words, respondents agree there is a problem, but it tends to exist elsewhere more than in their own community.

Question 3: Do you know of any programs in your community that provide basic education in reading and writing skills for adults?

Table 3
Are you aware of basic education programs?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	383	47.8	47.8
No	396	49.5	97.4
Won't answer	1	.1	97.5
Don't know	20	2.5	100.0
Total	800	100.0	

Question 4: From what you know of these programs, do you think they provide the basic skills in reading and writing that these people need?

Table 4
Do basic education programs provide skills?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Adjusted %	Cumulative %
Yes	319	39.9	83.4	83.4
No	7	.9	1.9	85.3
Won't answer	1	.1	.2	85.5
Don't know	55	6.9	14.5	100.0
Not asked	417	52.2	Missing	
Total	800	100.0		

Discussion. Of the 383 respondents to question 3 who indicated some knowledge of programs in their community that provide basic literacy instruction for adults, 319 (83.4%) were willing to say they think these programs provide the basic skills in literacy that these people need. This would indicate a high level of support for ABE programs from those who know about them.

Questions 5: Do you know of any programs in your own community that provide basic instruction in English as a second language for non-English speaking adults?

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Table 5
Are you aware of English instruction programs?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Adjusted %	Cumulative %
Yes	285	35.7	35.7	35.7
No	478	59.7	59.7	95.4
Won't answer	1	.1	.1	95.5
Don't know	36	4.5	4.5	100.0
Total	800	100.0	100.0	

Question 6: From what you know of these programs, do you think they provide the basic skills in English that these people need?

Table 6
Do English instruction programs provide skills?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Adjusted %	Cumulative %
Yes	231	28.9	80.9	80.9
No	10	1.2	3.4	84.3
Won't answer	1	.2	.5	84.8
Don't know	44	5.4	15.2	100.0
Not asked	515	64.3	Missing	
Total	800	100.0	100.0	

Discussion. Of the 285 respondents who indicated some knowledge of English as a second language programs for adults in their community, 231 (80.9%) were willing to say they think these programs provide the basic skills in English that these peopole need. This is another strong indicator of the importance of educating community members about the existence and mission of adult education programs.

Question 7: Do you think the government should provide funding for programs in reading and writing skills to adults who do not have these skills?

Table 7
Should government fund adult basic education?

Response	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Yes	581	72.6	72.6
No	187	23.4	96.0
Won't answer	7	.8	96.8
Don't know	25	3.2	100.0
Total	800	100.0	

Discussion. Of the 800 respondents, 581 (72.6%) said that the government should provide funding for literacy programs, and only 187 (23.4%) said it should not. Public support for ESL programs, though not as high as for adult basic education, is still affirmed by 481 (60.2%) respondents. In light of continuing discussions at state and national levels regarding public funding of education, these response rates indicate a high level of public support for ABE programs.

CONCLUSIONS

Over the past two decades, it would appear that the conditions of adult basic education programs have not changed significantly. Students are still confronted by similar barriers to learning, such as child care and transportation, inadequate facilities and inconvenient scheduling of classes, and low self-esteem and unsupportive families. Yet, in spite of these barriers, those stakeholders in public education, including policy makers and employers, generally feel that programs are needed and are doing good work with limited resources. What we have learned from this study for the first time is that the general public shares that view, if even for different reasons. What program administrators can learn from these findings is the value of educating their communities about their programs. The more the public knows about these programs, the more likely it is to support funding for them. And in light of current efforts to reauthorize federal adult education legislation, the results of this study support at the very least continued public funding of adult basic education.

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METACOGNITIVE DIMENSIONS OF THE SELECTION AND USE OF LEARNING STRATEGIES BY ADULT COLLEGE STUDENTS AND TRADITIONAL AGE COLLEGE STUDENTS

Mary Ann Rasnak, Ed.D.

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to examine the differences between adult college students and traditional-age college students in regard to the variables of metacognitive knowledge, learning-strategy use, and conceptualization of the learning process. Subjects were 57 college students enrolled in a college success course at Iowa State University. Twenty-seven were adult students, at least 25 years old. Thirty were traditional-age students between the ages of 18 and 24. Each subject participated in paper-and-pencil tasks as well as an individual, structured interview with the researcher which was taped and transcribed verbatim in order to gather data relative to their levels of metacognitive knowledge, use of learning strategies, and concepts about the learning process.

The two groups of subjects, adults and traditional-age students, were found to differ significantly in their level of metacognitive knowledge about how to learn, in their use of learning strategies, and in the way they conceptualized the learning process. Adult students knew more about how to learn and demonstrated that knowledge in more effective use of learning strategies. Their knowledge and strategy use were consistent with their concepts of the learning process as acquiring information for application or abstracting knowledge from facts or data. These results support notions related to both the developmental nature of metacognition and the particular characteristics of the adult as learner.

INTRODUCTION

As we stand on the brink of the twenty-first century, our views of learners and learning situations are once again in a state of revision. The demographics of learning are being transformed. Adults, often termed "non-traditional students" and defined as those at least 25 years old (Apps, 1981), are rapidly becoming the majority occupants in higher education classrooms. The median age in the United States is 34 and rising (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1994). Nearly 50% of all students enrolled in post secondary education are over 25 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994); the average age of today's college student is 36 (Smith, 1994). In 1991, 2,938,485 adults 25 years old and over were enrolled as full- or part-time undergraduates (National Center for Education Statistics, 1994).

To view this picture from a slightly different perspective, only 15% of traditional-age college students will finish a bachelor's degree before age 25, creating a growing pool of adult continuing education students (Aslanian, 1990). Currently, 52% of adult Americans who hold bachelor's degrees or higher take adult education courses; 70% of those who take courses, do so for reasons related to career/job advancement (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1994). Their learning is economically relevant, yet the growing trend is that higher levels of employment usually lead to more education and more training (Alsalam & Rogers, 1991). According to Aslanian (1990), "those who have an education are the ones who will come back for more of it." The term "life-long learning" carries new and increasingly urgent implications for teachers and learners.

The growing number of adults engaged in post-secondary educational endeavors mandates a closer examination of these learners. Havighurst (1976) discussed a change in attitudes towards educational programs from essentially preparatory during childhood and adolescence to a lifelong process. He saw the emphasis shifting to "educating the mind as an instrument of learning rather than a storehouse of knowledge" (p. 41). Wittrock (1988) makes a powerful case for the need to study the ways in which learners understand the interactions among learning strategies, their purposes for learning, and their own, internalized models of cognitive and metacognitive processes and how they operate. We need to know more about what adult learners bring to the formal learning task so that appropriate and useful interventions can be designed and models for teaching developed.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

In the early 1900's, Dewey (1910), Huey (1924), and Thorndike (1917) all made note of the *strategic*, problem-solving elements of the act of reading (Brown, 1985). Nearly 75 years later, reading comprehension theorists developed an interactive model of the reading process in which the reader's expectations, background knowledge, and textual information combine as he or she *constructs meaning* from text (R. C. Anderson, 1984; Rummelhart, 1977). At about the same time, Flavell (1970) named metacognition as a construct allowing researchers to examine learners' knowledge about the reading-to-learn process, their regulation of their own comprehension, and their use of a spectrum of learning strategies (Garner, 1987). Metacognition has been defined as both the learner's knowledge of his or her own cognitive processes and his or her ability to regulate those processes by organizing, monitoring, and modifying them as a function of learning outcomes (Brown, 1985; Duell, 1986; Paris, Wasik, & van der Westhuizen, 1988; Weinstein & Mayer, 1985). Metacognition is a powerful construct for helping us to understand the processes and strategies involved in formal learning.

Tei and Stewart (1985) listed the following activities as examples of metacognitive functions: recognizing when one does not understand; recognizing what one needs to learn in order to understand; recognizing the value of using different strategies to remedy failures; and recognizing that different learning tasks make different cognitive demands depending on the material, goal, and criterion task. Tei and Stewart further list examples of metacognitive activities: task analysis; monitoring strategy effectiveness; testing, revising, and evaluating strategies; planning; skimming; rereading; summarizing; determining structure and/or organization of information; pausing to test understanding; relating new information to prior knowledge; self-questioning and self-testing; predicting test questions. Given that 85% of all learning in college comes from independent reading (Nist & Mealey, 1991), the significance of the relationships between metacognitive knowledge and learning becomes clear.

Research in strategic, metacognitive reading and learning processes has been largely limited to the "captive" populations in elementary and secondary schools. When studies have been done with subjects described as "adults," they have most often focused on traditional college students, aged 18-22. On the other hand, researchers in the field of adult education have repeatedly called for a more systematic approach in order to build a sound research base in their own discipline (Candy, 1991; Cross, 1985; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Plecas & Sork, 1985,). These theorists have recognized that "there is an urgent need for the development of a body of research and theory unique to adult education so that adult educators may gain a better understanding of the nature of their particular enterprise and the conditions that facilitate successful educational practice with adults." (Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982, p. 25)

The basic beliefs underlying this study were twofold. First, at the college level, all educators are becoming adult educators, perhaps none more so than those in the field of college reading and learning assistance. All these professionals need to know more about the unique needs of adult learners and how to help them access what they know in order to create successful learning experiences. Second, insight into how adult students learn, specifically as they return to formal college classrooms and are faced with traditional college learning tasks, may add to the self-awareness of these learners as learners so that they may better facilitate their own learning processes.

METHOD

The fifty-seven subjects for this study were undergraduate students enrolled in four sections of a one-credit study skills improvement at Iowa State University. Subjects were divided into two groups, by age. Students aged 18-22 years old comprised the group of traditional-age students. Students 25 years of age and older comprised the group of adult students.

A passage from a college-level psychology textbook, was typed, single-spaced on three pages. Attached before passage was a page with instructions and a confidentiality statement. Attached after the passage was a page with a single open-ended question asking the subjects to describe what they did to learn and retain the material in the passage as they read and studied it. Reading passage packets were distributed to subjects in class and oral instructions given to read and study the passage as they would a regular textbook assignment. They were told they could make marks or notes on the passage itself and/or on separate papers.

At the following class meeting, passage packets and any additional notes were collected. Each subject took a 15-item multiple choice test. Prior to distributing the test, subjects received a sheet of paper with one question asking them to predict the total number of questions they would answer correctly. Additionally, a metacognitive prompt had been added to each question which asked subjects to predict whether or not they had answered each item correctly or incorrectly.

A structured interview was devised to ascertain subjects' levels of metacognitive knowledge and conceptualization of learning. Within two weeks following the reading/study/testing tasks, each subject was interviewed by the researcher in private. Interviews were recorded and transcribed, verbatim. The transcripts were evaluated for each subject and the degree of metacognitive knowledge was quantified as high, adequate, or poor. Learning process concepts were classified as quantifying, memorizing, applying, relating, or abstracting.

Hypotheses concerning the relationships between age, metacognitive knowledge, level of learning strategy use, and conceptualization of learning were tested using the t test for independent samples, the Mann-Whitney U-Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, Spearman rho, Kendall's tau, and Pearson Product-Moment correlation coefficients. A discussion of some of the results of these statistical tests follows in the next section.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the literature of adult education, it is clear that adult learners are considered to have characteristics specific to their status and roles as adults (Apps, 1981; Darkenwald & Merriam, 1982; Knowles, 1980; Smith, 1990;), and that these characteristics differentiate them from learners of other ages. Theorists have proposed that adults are "self-directed," (Brockett & Hiemstra, 1991; Candy, 1991), but have also suggested that the formal learning setting may suppress some of the differences between adult learners and other learners (Candy, 1991). In addition, researchers who have explored the construct of metacognition have concluded that metacognitive knowledge is developmental, that is that it increases with age and experience (Baker, 1984; Brown, 1987). The results of this study clearly supported these notions about metacognition and about adults as learners.

The results showed significant differences between the group of adult subjects and the group of traditional age subjects in relation to metacognitive knowledge about how to learn, in the level of learning strategy use, and in the conceptualization of the learning process. In the cases of the differences in level of metacognitive knowledge about how to learn and in the level of use of learning strategies, these findings support the notion that adults are able draw upon a reservoir of experiences which inform and support their learning in a variety of situations and contexts. Adults' interview responses to the question related to how they learned contained such statements as the following:

> It's easiest if I preread everything before I go to class. It doesn't always get done, but at least I try. And then when I get out of lecture, I go back and reread, because some things are always a little bit on the fuzzy side. If I go back and reread and take some notes or make some diagrams, then it just really clears up and makes it more understandable and that gives me a chance to dig out the little things that I really don't understand and concentrate on them. (Bill S. 52)

> I find that I read shorter amounts of information, stop and think about it. Where before [when I was younger] I probably just buzzed through it and at the end go, "Whew, I'm done!" . . .If I'm not sure of a concept or whatever, I look at it again, look at an example, and make notesso that I understand it before I go on. And if I said I was going to read this whole chapter, but it took me twice as long because I didn't understand it [at first], that's fine with me, you know, as long as I finally understand what I read. I didn't use to do that. (Denise J., 26)

The results also indicated a significant difference between adults and traditional-age subjects in regard to how they conceptualize the learning process. A typology of learning processes developed by Saljo (1979) was used to categorize interview responses from subjects. Forty percent of the adults conceived of learning as a process of acquiring information or knowledge for later direct application. Their interview responses contained such statements as: "[learning] is more being able to use the information as opposed to just memorizing whatever it is. . .being able to find out how it's applicable somewhere. . .To me, a lot of times, I will be mentally applying it to different aspects as opposed to the actual [class-related] aspect." An additional 37% of adults conceived of learning as a process of abstracting knowledge from facts or data. For example, one of them stated, " [Learning] would be an interaction between what the professor tells you and what he doesn't tell you. . .you've got to do some deeper digging to get out what you want." Only 22% of adults conceived of learning as memorizing information. Again, these findings support the tenet of adult educators who have long held that adult learners are goal-oriented, seeking learning opportunities for very specific purposes and applications.

Significant relationships existed between metacognitive knowledge about how to learn and about what has been learned and subjects use of learning strategies. These relationships support the notion proposed by Paris and Winograd (1990) that metacognition focuses attention on the role of awareness and executive management of our thinking, helping learners become active participants rather than passive receptacles. Subjects with higher levels of metacognitive knowledge of both how to learn and what has been learned took active control the reading passage, using learning strategies such as creating notecards, making marginal notes or outlines, or marking the text, without having been trained in the use of these strategies. They had not been made aware of these techniques; they accessed their own awareness that they were useful. They took the role of "executive manager," aware of the nature of the task, actively selecting strategies to assist their comprehension and retention of the material. The following statements are representative of those made by adult students in response to the questionnaire asking them what they did to learn the material in the reading passage task: "I preread each paragraph and then went back to highlight the important ideas. I tried to highlight primary ideas in one color and supporting information or secondary ideas in another--as an art major, I really like using color"; "First, I skim the article, then I take in all that interests me, underlining important things (whether they interest me or not). Then I go back, and try to absorb the technical (clinical) information that I didn't catch when I was trying to gather the context of the entire article."

One of the other variables taken into consideration in this study was the subjects' conceptualization of the learning process, which also proved to be significantly correlated with learning strategy use ($\underline{r} = .5143$, $p < .001$) and metacognitive knowledge about how to learn ($\underline{r} = .68$, $p < .001$). It has already been noted that the adult subject group was also significantly different from the traditional age group in the ways they conceptualized learning. For the entire sample, however, subjects who conceived of learning as a process involving some sort of application, whether only at the level of using information for classroom test performance, for later application in other situations, or for deriving their own abstracted meaning from facts or data, generally demonstrated higher levels of learning strategy use. In addition, the regression analysis also revealed that conceptualization of the learning process and learning strategy use accounted for 48% of the variation in metacognitive knowledge about how to know. Subjects who conceive of learning has having a purpose related future application are more likely to take active steps to insure that learning by using strategies to understand and retain information.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND RESEARCH

The needs of adult learners seeking assistance in reading and study skills may be different from those of traditional age learners. Practitioners routinely present a menu of reading and learning strategies to all students, often basing their instruction on the reading ability of their students. Adult learners may respond more readily to an approach that acknowledges and validates the resources they have gained through their life experiences and helps them adapt strategies they are already aware of to the formal learning setting. Adult learners are also more goal- and application-oriented than traditional-age students. They are able to take executive control of their learning and they are ready and willing to learn strategies they can use immediately and/or adapt in the future. These characteristics, not often recognized or rewarded by learning assistance professionals (Davis, 1995), indicate that adult learners could be encouraged to set their own goals and evaluate their own achievement on the basis of their own personal results from using strategies.

All students in reading and learning assistance courses and programs could benefit from accessing and articulating their own definitions or concepts of what they perceive the learning process to be. These models are strongly correlated with learning strategy use, connecting the what, why, and how of learning. In learning assistance courses, an introductory activity in which students are asked to establish personal definitions for learning to be used as a framework supporting their training in the use of specific learning strategies could be beneficial.

Continuation of this research could be conducted in other settings such ascommunity colleges, urban colleges and universities, smaller colleges, and even in workplace training settings. It is also suggested that materials from disciplines in the physical and biological sciences be used in additional studies to determine differences in metacognitive knowledge in relation to the material being studied. This study focused on the differences between age groups in regard to the variables of metacognitive knowledge, learning strategy use, and conceptualization of the learning process. As more information becomes available about gender-based differences in thinking and learning, additional research employing a larger sample could examine the differences between males and females within both age groups Finally, qualitative or case study research is suggested to help discover other variables within individuals which influence learning and knowledge about how to learn, such as ethnicity or socio-economic status. Detailed study of an individual or group of individuals over time could reveal how factors related to the subjects past and present states affect the development of metacognitive knowledge.

CONCLUSION

The findings in this study support notions related to both the developmental nature of metacognition and the particular characteristics of the adult as learner. They suggest enhanced recognition of and attention to the both the strengths and needs of adult learners as their numbers increase in formal college settings. Adults' metacognitive processes differentiate them from traditional-age students. These adults appear to possess higher levels of metacognitive knowledge which can be used to help them facilitate their own successful learning experiences in formal settings. As higher education becomes more dependent upon these learners to fill the seats of college classrooms, all post-secondary educators, particularly those in learning assistance settings, must develop appropriate teaching methods and interventions to insure that adult students can enjoy the full benefits of both their educational and life experiences.

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FOR *SELF* AND FOR *OTHERS*: WHY YOUNG ADULTS ARE MOTIVATED TO VOLUNTEER IN A COMMUNITY SERVICE PROJECT

Karen T. Ricker and Maria T. Hruby

ABSTRACT

What motivates young adults (college students) to volunteer in a community service project? A qualitative inquiry, using grounded theory to build the interpretive framework, was used in order to address the guiding research questions. The study site was a local food pantry; participants were young adults (ages 19 - 21) from a large, mid-western university. Data collection methods included interviews, and participant observations. A predetermined list of open-ended questions was developed to use as a guide for the interviews. Two major themes emerged from the data: volunteering for the "self" and volunteering for "others." Sub-themes included the following: awareness of limits; awareness of successes; personal change and growth; expanded awareness of community; positive feelings about volunteering; and negative feelings about volunteering. From the findings, the Volunteer Motivation model was developed to demonstrate the motivation circle of volunteerism that was observed.

INTRODUCTION

The concept of volunteerism has existed since the beginning of human history. Traditionally, volunteer involvement in community service has been an important aspect of American life (Fitch, 1987). As organizations experience budgetary cutbacks for their operating costs, many have come to depend on the support and devotion of their volunteers. This is particularly true for many non-profit social service agencies that rely on volunteers to provide needed services on a daily basis. In recent years, the issue of student volunteerism has been a concern of college administrators and advisors. Many colleges and universities have instituted programs to encourage their students' involvement in volunteer service as part of their academic studies. National groups such as Campus Compact and the Campus Outreach Opportunity League are part of a national effort to promote and encourage community service and outreach volunteer work by college students (Krehbiel & MacKay, 1988). The increase in community service work by college students throughout the nation disputes media reports that portrays college students as selfish and egocentric.

Little research has been conducted to determine the motivational factors related to student volunteer involvement (Altman and Sedlacek,1990). Previous studies have focused on investigating why students were motivated to be involved in community service (Fitch,1987); determining the relationship between students' perceived feelings of competence and the level of involvement in volunteer community service (Serow, Ciechalski and Daye,1990); and examining personality traits unique to student volunteers (Sergent and Sedlacek,1990). While these studies produced reasons for "why" students volunteered, we still wondered what motivates the students from *their* point of view. What can student volunteers really tell us about their experiences regarding why they originally became involved in volunteering with a particular program? What did they feel were the personal benefits to this type of work? What were their views of community service? What did volunteering do for them? These questions formed the basis of a qualitative study with students who volunteered in a food pantry program sponsored by a college volunteer organization.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

To gain a better understanding of why college students were active as volunteers in a community agency, we employed a qualitative design and used an interpretative framework (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) to learn from the students by using their comments and personal stories. In October 1993, we met with the director of a student-run community-service organization at a large university located in the midwest to gain access to the volunteers. The organization's focus is to involve students in volunteering with community organizations with the objective that students will develop a "sense of community" about the local area while living there as college students. The organization also hopes to become involved with community projects on a long-term basis, so as students graduate and move away from the area, other students will take their place and fill their volunteer shoes. At the time of this study, several students were volunteering at a local food pantry adjacent to campus.

After meeting with the community-service director and receiving his support for the project, we contacted the director of the food pantry program to gain entry to the study site. The food pantry director gave us her full support, and told us she would be glad to have us use her facility. We then contacted the student volunteer liaison for the food pantry project. This person acted as our "knowledgeable informant" and supplied us with a list of names and phone numbers of the students she thought would be interested in being interviewed about why they volunteer in the food pantry. Before contacting the students, we developed a list of open-ended interview questions to use as a guideline. The questions that focused specifically on issues related to motivation and volunteering include the following:

- Why did you get involved?
- How do you feel about what you do - how does it make you feel about yourself and those you serve?
- What are the benefits (advantages) or disadvantages of volunteering in this program?
- How has volunteering changed your views about the world?
- What is your definition of community service?

Other questions asked were more general focusing on how the students found out about the food pantry project, how long they have been volunteering, and who influenced them to get involved in volunteering. Two questions were asked specifically to gather information for the food pantry director who hopes to increase the number of volunteers in the pantry. These questions concentrated on what the students thought could be done to involve more students in the program, and how the students would describe the people that came to the pantry.

Data were gathered from mid-October to mid-November 1993. Six interviews were conducted with student volunteers. Observations took place at the student community-service organization meetings, and on-site at the food pantry. Two independent observations were conducted at the food pantry by both researchers. Six students were interviewed: four women and two men. All of the students were Caucasian and 19 years of age; five were sophomores, and one was a freshman. Five of the students told us that no one in their family was actively involved in volunteering when they were growing up. Only one of the students had a parent who was, and still is, an active volunteer in her community. Students said they were influenced to get involved in volunteering by friends, through a work situation, from a high school teacher, parents, and other relatives. The students initially learned about the student community-service organization and the food pantry project through friends, a dormitory resident advisor, a flyer, and through a work-study arrangement.

Interviews were conducted in various locations based on what was most convenient for the students; all interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed. School libraries, dorm rooms, student lounges, a coffee house, and a car all served as interview sites. When interviewed, the students were at different stages in their food pantry volunteer experiences: two students had been volunteering since the previous spring, and four students were new volunteers at the pantry, although all had prior volunteer experience. Validity within the study was obtained through triangulation of research methods and analysis: two different researchers each conducting three different interviews, separate on-site observations, joint interviews with the food pantry director, and the student coordinator, attendance of a community-service organization meeting, and cross-analysis of the data by the researchers. In the discussion that follows, all names have been changed to maintain confidentiality.

MAJOR THEMES

Through an inductive process, we were able to identify the significant patterns and themes that emerged from the participants' actual stories (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Erickson, 1986; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Marshall & Rossman, 1989). We were primarily interested in finding out from the students what motivated them to volunteer in the food pantry project. From the students' detailed and thoughtful answers to our questions, two major themes emerged: volunteering for the "self" and volunteering for "others." Volunteering for the self is how we classified responses such as "I like the feeling that came out of it" and "it makes me feel good that I'm giving something back." Even though the students were helping others, their primary motivation was the personal feelings of satisfaction that they gained.

Comments such as "you are filling a basic need ... you are doing something that really makes a difference" and "it is helping people around you" are examples of volunteering for "others" responses. The primary motivation for these students was doing something for others first, and the positive feelings of satisfaction were second. Certain questions evoked more "self" than "other" responses. For example, when asked to explain how volunteering makes them feel, many students talked about themselves first. Nancy tells us "it makes me feel good, that I'm giving something back." Yet several students had combination self/others comments. Lynn talks about how she "feels really good about what I do, but I also feel guilty, like I could do a lot more." Her statements about wanting to do more shows her concern about others. Some questions encouraged more "other" responses than "self." When we asked the students their definition of community service, Kate told us that "it's helping the community that you live in, putting any effort into making it better." And Sue said "it's anything you can do or that can be done in the community." The following excerpts are examples of the major themes that emerged from the students' replies.

WHY THE STUDENT BECAME INVOLVED AS A VOLUNTEER IN THE FOOD PANTRY

Sue tells us that "I got involved with it because my work study job last year was [at the community-service organization]." "I get a good feeling from doing this kind of stuff," says Lynn. Kate says "I just enjoy getting involved in something that is worthwhile." And Mike responds that "everyone needs that type of stuff in their background," and "I like to work in organizations because I can learn a lot from these people who have found their goal in their life and have decided to do something." All of these responses can be considered "self" answers, meaning the students talked about their reasons for volunteering in terms of what it did for them. Students also told us "others" reasons for why they volunteered. Sue says that "the whole idea that there are people who need help and if you can help anyone in any way, you should. It [volunteering] just makes sense to me. I don't see how you can *not* do anything..."

HOW DO YOU FEEL ABOUT WHAT YOU DO

When students responded to this questions, their comments included the major themes, along with sub-themes for this particular question. These sub-themes were either positive (a positive connotation) or negative (a negative connotation). Bob talks about his experience in terms of "self" and confrontation: "... I guess the way it affects me is that it's a confrontation. Every week I have to confront poverty and I have to realize that there's people out there who don't have enough to eat and they have to get a bag of groceries from us every month, and that's a rude awakening. I need to do that for myself to let myself know where I stand."

While Bob says his volunteer work is something he needs to do for himself, he also views this experience as something that is *not* 100% positive. Lynn tells us that she feels "I am doing my share to help others that are not as lucky as I am" a self/positive statement. And while she feels good about what she does she also feels "guilty, like I could do a lot more" a self/negative statement. Kate responds with a couple of self/positive comments. She tells us that "I like the feeling that came out of it" and "I feel that I could do more, but I am proud that I do something. I feel good about that, that I'm contributing something." Mike states that his volunteering "really helps you to discover that you can become a part of a process, even a small part ... and you can help others." His response is a combination self/others/positive comment. And Nancy says that volunteering "makes me feel good, that I'm giving something back. On the other hand it alerts me to the fact that there's not enough that anybody can do and it makes you feel helpless." Her experience can be interpreted as self/positive/negative.

BENEFITS TO VOLUNTEERING/DISADVANTAGES TO VOLUNTEERING IN THE PROGRAM

Most of the responses to these questions were concerned with "self." Lynn says that "it [volunteering] does a lot more for me inside than it does for them." "I see a lot of personal benefits in it," says Nancy. "Aside from a feeling of involvement, I guess from my own personal well-being I feel it's something I should be involved with." A couple of the students discussed the benefits in terms of meeting other people. Mike told us that "I think the most beneficial thing is that I will get to know some people in the community" and Bob says "it has also allowed me to go beyond my usual circle... it allows me to go outside of my culture, my little circle of white, middle-class friends. I can branch out."

As with responses to the benefits of volunteering in the program, most of the students also stated "self" comments when asked about the disadvantages of volunteering in the food pantry. Lynn tells us that "it makes you see things that you probably would rather not see. It makes you conscious of other people's problems ... you are exposed to a lot of things that you typically would not be faced with." Three of the students who replied with "self" responses were also inexperienced volunteers who had not spent much time in the food pantry at the time of our interviews. Their comments to these questions concerned some of their fears about what they would face. For example, Sue told us that "interacting with the clients, right now I'm nervous about it." Nancy is worried that the "people coming from the street may take advantage of the pantry, or there may be people who are violent or belligerent." In contrast, Mike responded with "others" statements. Mike would "like to be more a part of the process." He wants to be involved with the whole food pantry program.

HOW HAS VOLUNTEERING CHANGED YOUR VIEWS ABOUT THE WORLD

All of the responses to this question were focused on "self." But a strong sub-theme of *expanded awareness* and *personal change* is apparent with all of the students' comments. "Volunteering has really made me aware of a lot of things that I normally would not see and it does change your views about things" says Lynn. Sue states that "I realize that everything's not as simple as it seems to be." Kate shares that "it has definitely awakened me to a lot." She adds that "I think in general volunteering made me more aware and got me curious to learn more."

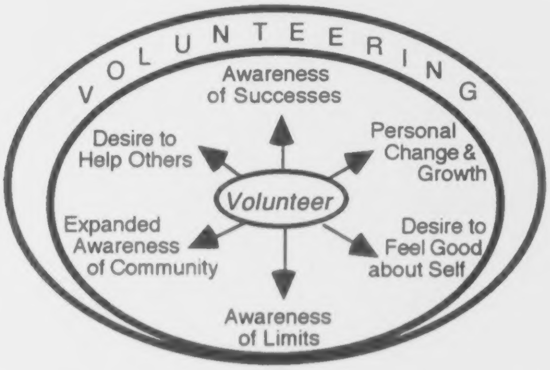
Bob's comment relates to his earlier response. He say that "it's been that reality check for me. Now when I walk by the homeless people on High Street, I just can't walk by quite as quickly. Sometimes I'll stop and if I have any food with me, I'll give some to a person." Nancy admits that volunteering has "blackened it a little" [her view of the world]. She add that "one of the things that bothers me the most in all of the experience that I've had is the fact that personally there's not enough that you can do. You can try to make people want to do things, and try harder and do certain things to make their lives better, but you can't do it for them and that's one of the hardest things to face when working in any type of volunteer project."

DISCUSSION

Motivation as described by Murray (1938) (in Sergent & Sedlacek, 1990) is when individuals seek situations that will fulfill their own needs and are compelled to act in ways that will satisfy their needs. However, in terms of the student volunteers that we observed, we would describe their motivation as a *conflict* between their own needs and other's needs. By examining the major themes that emerged within responses to each questions, it is apparent that the students maintain a dichotomy within themselves. Most students volunteered not only for "self" but for "others" too. The students' responses to what motivated them to volunteer would alternate between these extremes. The direction constantly shifted and made it difficult to determine which was the stronger motivator. This would indicate that perhaps one motivation balanced out the other. Often the student could not identify the stronger motivator. Another dichotomy was also observed in the sub-themes of the students' responses to the positive and negative aspects of volunteering. It appeared that sometimes the motivation was the desire to see the bad side of the community in order to help them make a positive contribution to society.

The actual results of volunteering could also be viewed as motivators which complete the circle of volunteerism. The outcomes of being involved in the food pantry project were categorized as achieving personal growth, and obtaining an expanded awareness of the community that surrounded the students. It could not be assessed which was a greater reward for the students since they often mentioned both of these factors. Personal growth could come about through meeting other people, making new friends, or by learning about processes within an organization. An increase in the awareness of their community made them see that they could help, or make a difference. However, the powerful motivation here may be that the students could see that so much more needed to be done, and this realization may encourage them to continue volunteering. To better envision the relationship between the themes in this study, we created a model to demonstrate the motivational factors of student volunteerism observed.

Motivation Model: A Balance Of Opposites In Volunteering



The students' responses can be explained using this model. Although each student may have started from a different point in the cycle, each one talked about experiencing opposite forces along a continuum. This is consistent with Social Exchange Theory which suggests that people contribute to the degree that they perceive they are being rewarded (Altman & Sedlacek, 1990). Perhaps these students have a greater need to give because they felt the rewards are benefiting people who have greater needs than they do. An inherent balancing feature that can be seen as opposing forces is evident in these volunteers' responses. The forces depicted in the model allow the students to move between the college community and their surrounding environment.

CONCLUSION AND ISSUES FOR FURTHER STUDY

What motivated these volunteer students to become involved in the food pantry project? The important factors that contributed to these students participation was their desire to give something back (to others) balanced by the opportunity to get something out of the process (for self). These six students had a strong sense of who they were as individuals, but also had a social sense that they were part of a bigger picture, part of a community. From that social sense came a need to know more about their environment. Why? It appears that these student volunteers are aware that they take from the community and have strong desire to give back and help other people because it seems logical to them. Possibly they developed this logic through previous participation in volunteer organizations, from people they admire, or from talking with friends. These young men and women have a better understanding of what the world is like outside their normal sphere. It seems that many of the volunteers did not often like what they saw when they were at the food pantry; however, that gave them a better insight into the reality of the bigger world they live in. This understanding may have some influence in their future as they decide on a career. Personal development to learn about the self, combined with volunteerism, may be the key to understanding the cycle of motivation. We hope that practitioners working in community agencies that depend on the efforts of volunteer workers, will be able to apply the findings from this research to help recruit and retain volunteers. Understanding the volunteers' needs will help to strengthen their connection to the organization. In addition, college or university-level community-service programs may be interested in the approaches we used in this project.

This study provides support for the learning exchange that occurs between volunteers and their community. Additional research in the area of volunteers and motivation could explore the relationship between individuals and their perception of "community". We are also interested in applying the Volunteer Motivation Model developed from the major findings to other community service/volunteer-centered programs to further understand the motivation factors important for citizen participation. In addition, investigating how motivational factors change over time, the transformative learning aspects of volunteering, and the relationship between critical thinking and volunteering, specifically how learning in a community setting can be used to foster critical thinking among young adults, may provide additional ways to understand the motivation behind the volunteer act.

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ACADEMIC ACCOMMODATION: MEANING AND IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT EDUCATION PRACTITIONERS.

Tonette Rocco

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses the academic accommodation of individuals with disabilities, providing explanations of the differences and inter-relatedness between academic and physical accommodation, different disabilities, and legal aspects of accommodation. Students with disabilities are increasing their participation in a variety of adult education forums such as higher education, continuing education and remedial education services. Practitioners need access to available resources and specific suggestions on accommodations to assist them in teaching.

INTRODUCTION

This paper is part of a larger research study on academic accommodation and disclosure. To live the experience of people with disabilities, I first became an observer of a newly formed student organization, then as a participant observer (van Manen, 1990). A literature review has been conducted to support findings made as a participant observer and activist (Lee, 1970; Patton 1990). Observations were made during meetings of Students for Disability Awareness, as a participant in the organization's campus awareness campaign and as a member of a university-wide task force convened to investigate campus life for students with disabilities. Data have also been collected by conducting pilot interviews and through several internet listservs dealing with disability, higher education and legal issues. All three data sources have given me opportunities to witness the testimony of students with disabilities on issues surrounding academic accommodation and to read the stories of practitioners trying to proactively accommodate students. Recommendations for practice have emerged from the strong, deeply emotional stories I have heard and recorded.

DEFINING THE TERRITORY

The legal basis for academic accommodation in adult and higher education comes from three laws: Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1970 (P. L. 102-119) (IDEA), The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P. L. 93-112) (hereafter referred to as Section 504) and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1990 (P. L. 101-336) (ADA). IDEA applies to K-12 education or ages 3 to 21. Postsecondary service providers to students with disabilities borrow from IDEA, even though IDEA does not apply to higher education. One example is the standard of three years usefulness of documentation of a disability. Section 504 requires all agencies receiving federal assistance to provide equal access to education and employment opportunities. The ADA expands the protection provided by Section 504, effectively opening all private and public education opportunities to adults with disabilities. The ADA requires all education programs and services be accessible to individuals with disabilities (Duston & Provan, 1995). Adult educators have an obligation to reach beyond the legal requirements. This obligation stems from our tradition of social activism and of assisting the oppressed to gain equivalent access to education. Two ways adult education can go beyond the legal requirements are through research examining the learning styles of individuals with various disabilities and by practicing techniques of inclusion when we facilitate learning opportunities.

IDEA provides for a committee (parents, teacher, administrator, disability specialist and sometimes student) to oversee the child's education. Individuals with disabilities are considered adults when they graduate from secondary education or when they reach the age of 21, ending their educational protection under IDEA. At that point Section 504 and the ADA provide protection in employment and educational opportunities. The individual with a disability is responsible for making necessary arrangements for academic accommodation. For adult educators who define adult as someone who has education as a secondary responsibility to other primary demands like work and family, to think of an eighteen year old first year college student as an adult may be difficult.

An individual with a disability has a physical or mental impairment which substantially limits a major life activity; has a record or history of such an impairment; or is regarded as having such an impairment (ADA, 1990). Education and learning are considered major life activities. Whenever a course is offered in higher education, a literacy program, continuing education or training in the workplace, any "otherwise qualified" registrant or applicant requesting an accommodation must be accommodated, if the request is "reasonable" and does not produce an "undue hardship" (ADA, 1990). "Undue hardship" is determined by considering all the resources at the disposal of an institution. This means a branch campus, department or specific program area's resources are considered in the context of the entire institution's resources. An "otherwise qualified" individual is one who meets "the technical and academic qualifications for entry into the school, program or activity" (Kincaid, 1994). In other words, if a program has established minimum competency levels in the form of standardized test scores, grade point average or successful completion of prerequisites, the applicant must meet those requirements.

Physical disabilities stem from disease, injury or birth conditions. They can differ by being either permanent or temporary and by degree of functional limitation (Wright, 1983). Mental disabilities include psychological, cognitive (e.g. learning disabilities) and environmental disabilities. Environmental disabilities are a new area which many consider a physical disability. Adults with learning disabilities represent the disability group most frequently served by adult educators. These students have average or above average intellectual ability, often with below average or poor academic records and performance (Perin, 1990). Learning disabilities stem from a variety of sources affecting learning by diminishing sensory brain activity (Kavale and Forness, 1985). Learning disabilities affect the learners' perception, cross-modal transfer, intersensory processing, central auditory processing, attention, and sequencing (Kavale and Forness, 1985; Vellutino, 1990). In addition to affecting academic performance, learning disabilities affect social interaction skills, emotional maturity, vocational competence and self direction (Polloway, Smith & Patton, 1984). Often individuals with learning disabilities find ways to hide the difficulties their learning disability causes instead of learning techniques to compensate for the difficulties or techniques to facilitate learning.

Academic accommodation has two parts: physical access and cognitive access. Participants must first be able to gain entry to the college campus, the corporate training center or the community center. Then, participants must be able to cognitively access the information or experience provided by the particular program. Physical access is unencumbered entrance into a building, a restroom stall or onto a bus. It includes a sidewalk free of encumbrances, ramps, disability parking, signage modifications, fire alarms with lights, working elevators, and classrooms with space for students in wheelchairs.

Academic access occurs when academic adjustments and auxiliary aids are used to achieve equivalent access to information provided in educational settings or learning environments. For learning to occur, students must be able to access the information. For those with print disorders, the written word may need to be tape recorded. Print disorders occur in individuals with learning disabilities, visual impairments, mobility impairments and other disabilities. Movies and videos are inaccessible to those with hearing impairments and visual impairments. For individuals with hearing impairments, closed captioning is an aid to accessing the sound of the video. To access the story being told visually, individuals with visual impairments need an oral description of the action occurring on the screen.

PRINCIPLES OF ACCOMMODATION

To receive an academic accommodation an individual must first disclose information about the existence and nature of her or his disability and request accommodation (ADA, 1990). If the individual does not request accommodation, an instructor or agency is not required to guess either that the individual has a disability or needs an accommodation. However, once the disclosure is made, preference should be given to the methods of delivery and types of accommodations the individual requests. Academic adjustments and auxiliary aids that would "fundamentally alter" the "essential" nature of a program of study are not required (Kincaid, 1994). An agency cannot cancel a community, continuing or professional education program or workshop because a person asks for an accommodation that it is unable or unwilling to provide. Nor can an agency offer an alternative that separates the individual with a disability from the others taking the course. For example, if the building in which the workshop is scheduled is not accessible to a person using a wheelchair, it is discriminatory to offer a private, at home session for the individual with a disability. The solution is to move the workshop to an accessible location (Hershey, 1991).

Higher education, community education and technical programs in postsecondary educational settings have designated counselors or campus offices to assist students with disabilities. Postsecondary instructors should utilize the expertise of these counselors to provide academic adjustments or auxiliary aids to students. Even though adult education principles prescribe asking the student first, many postsecondary institutions have procedures for instructors and students to follow with the accompanying documentation which must be adhered to. In other adult and community education environments, the adult educator can first ask the person with the disability what accommodations they need. If the person is unclear about how to accommodate their disability call an agency specializing in assisting individuals with the particular disability. Many third party agencies (Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation) will assist with the technical tools of accommodation. Next, there are many local and national organizations willing to help. Approach the local agency responsible for assisting persons with a particular disability if there are none in an area contact the national agency. A resource I use frequently is The Americans with Disabilities Act: Access and accommodations. (Hablutzel, & McMahon, 1992). Even though this book is written for those interested in employment issues, it contains the complete text of the ADA, regulations and a list of national resources.

Some examples of academic adjustments students/participants are entitled to are:

(1) Additional time to complete tests, coursework or graduation;
(2) Substitution of nonessential courses for degree requirements;
(3) Adaptation of course instruction;
(4) Tape recording of classes; and
(5) Modification of test taking/performance evaluations so as not to discriminate against students with sensory, manual or speaking impairments (unless such skills are factors the test purports to measure) (Kincaid, 1994, p. 2).

Auxiliary aids and services that must be provided are: "(1) Qualified interpreters, notetakers, computer aided transcription services, written materials, assistive listening systems, closed caption decoders, open and closed captioning, TDDs; (2) Readers, taped texts, audio recordings, large print and Brailled materials; (3) Acquisition or modification of equipment" (Kincaid, 1994, p. 3). These regulations apply to higher education, community education and private for profit educational programs. Most adjustments are relatively simple to accomplish, others can be expensive and difficult to accomplish for a specific program.

ADULT LEARNERS, DISABILITY AND MYTHS

One of the most common painful complaints I have heard in the past three years is of a student disclosing a disability and need for accommodation only to be disbelieved. One woman with an invisible disability told a University Board of Trustees meeting she was "sick and tired of being called liar by librarians [and] having to grin and bear it." A male student who is quadriplegic described a telephone encounter: "This one guy thought I was playing a joke on him. ...I told him I was a quad and I needed... more help than the average student, probably about 3 to 5 hours a week of his particular office hours. And the guy thought I was playing a joke on him, thought I was one of his grad buddies playing a joke . No I'm [not] joking about this. This is not a joking matter. This is real." The student reported the instructor to the department chair and enrolled in a different section. The humiliation and anger of not being believed is especially common for a person with an invisible disability. If an instructor questions the veracity of the disclosure, it is a simple matter to respectfully ask for documentation or permission to speak to the person's counselor. However, the stigma attached to disability is so strong that a person with a disability carefully weighs how much and when to disclose, wanting to avoid pity and feelings of inadequacy.

An accommodation is intended to level the playing field, not to give anyone an advantage over others. Stories are told by students with learning disabilities of instructors who say that a student who needs extended test taking time receives an unfair advantage over other students. The instructor is oblivious to the amount of time lost when a student's disability causes her/him to mentally stop if he/she cannot spell or read a word. A student with a learning disability may shut down or slow down when encountering a minor impediment. The impediment is minor only to someone without the disability who could simply skip the word, untroubled.

Disabilities vary just as the impact of a disability on learning varies according to the person. The person who best knows his/her academic accommodation needs is the person with the disability. However, individuals with learning disabilities often have inaccurate perceptions of their personal strengths (Buchanan & Wolf 1986). Accurate perceptions of the impact of the learning disability and knowledge of accommodations comes after diagnosis through work with counselors and other professionals. Other issues in articulating accommodation needs are the length of time the person has known of the disability and how much she/he knows about his/her disability. The instructor knows the course material. Through discussion, the student and instructor should be able to arrive at the most effective accommodation for the student. Since a disportionate number of adults with learning disabilities can be found in ABE/GED and literacy programs, adult educators have a responsibility to help these adults learn how to articulate their accommodation needs (see Ross-Gordon 1989).

Many people believe anyone who is deaf can lip read. In order to lip read, however, many factors such as individual aptitude, post lingual deafness, and a person with hearing who practices the skill with the person with deafness are important. In the same vein, not all people who are hard of hearing or deaf read American Sign Language (ASL). For others ASL is their native language not signed English or spoken English. If a student who is deaf requests the instructor to look at the student to facilitate lip reading, the instructor should try to do this. However, some other method should be used to ensure the student has access to the same information the other students are receiving. It is very difficult to have a speaker always facing the person who lip-reads. The same is true of an individual with a visual impairment--not all are totally blind, or read Braille, or can use the same size text enlargement.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE AND RESEARCH

Reading material is often not accessible at the same time it is accessible to students without disabilities. A student with a disability has a right to the course readings in as timely a fashion as students without disabilities. Program planners/instructors must consider the needs of students with disabilities much earlier than they do for students without disabilities. In fact, required or supplemental readings for a course or workshop need time to be ordered from Recordings for the Blind or read into a tape recorder by volunteers at an institution. Institutions can assist themselves and participants with disabilities by placing in all program advertisements a notice of accommodation. The wording could be something like this:

> This (institution/program or) instructor will make every effort to effect reasonable accommodations when warranted. It is the responsibility of any student (participant/adult) needing an accommodation to inform the institution and instructor of their disability, how it creates a learning impediment, and the type of accommodation needed. The instructor and the student will work with the Disabilities Services Office (or counselor) to determine effective and appropriate accommodations. Please notify the

instructor or administrator upon registration at least # weeks in advance of the start date of the program/course.

Students with disabilities reading this notice can then give the program coordinator time prior to the beginning of the program to make accommodations.

The number of adults with learning disabilities in literacy or ABE/GED programs is uncertain because of a variety of factors (Ross-Gordon, 1989). In trying to calculate the numbers Ross-Gordon writes, "adults with LD are probably more likely than other adults to be among current non-participants in adult education" (1989, p. 7). It seems logical that this group of adults would be abundantly represented in literacy and ABE/GED programs since they would have had the most difficulty during high school. Adults with learning disabilities are, after all, adults with multidirectional or pluralistic factors affecting their development over an entire life span (Polloway, Smith, & Patton, 1984). My experience with adults who are learning disabled has shown how frustrating it is for them to be expected to learn in traditional ways. Literacy volunteers and ABE/GED instructors need specific training in facilitating and accommodating the learning styles of individuals with learning disabilities.

Literacy and ABE/GED programs are a big part of adult education. Research is needed on methods to increase effectiveness of literacy and ABE/GED training of individuals with learning disabilities and other types of disabilities. Other areas to investigate include adaptations and effectiveness of materials currently used. Many people discover as adults that they have learning disabilities or attention deficient disorder. This challenges adult educators to develop methods to assist these adults to learn about the nature their disability, coping techniques for the ramifications of the disability, and when and how to disclose in education and employment settings.

When a group of people bound by similar experience unfamiliar to mainstream Americans enter the educational system their needs and issues should be examined in terms of the members of the new group's combined experience, not according to the traditions of the majority. For example, individuals with disabilities request person first language be used (Blaska, 1993). This means writing and speaking of the woman who is blind or the man who is wheel chair assisted or the individual with a learning disability. All to often societies label its members who are different from the majority by referring to people by their differences, the blind or Blacks.

Members of minority groups are demanding research and practice based on their realities, not on the dominant Western European model. Adults with disabilities are the fastest growing group of participants of educational services, especially those with learning disabilities, but participants with disabilities are not limited to this single class of disabilities. Regardless of the level of services (higher education to literacy) adult educators are on the front lines. The growing need for research related to theory and practice has been discussed much in terms of white and black women and black men (see Hayes and Colin, 1994). Adult educators and researchers need to conduct research relevant to our practice and research designed to build theory based on the learning experience of individuals with disabilities.

CONCLUSION

Adult education's history as social change agents and participants in social and civil rights movements increases our responsibility to this newly recognized minority group. As individuals with disabilities realize the potential of the civil rights protection afforded them by the ADA, their participation in education is steadily increasing. This newly recognized minority is demanding educational services at a rate comparable to that of the African American community upon winning legal recognition of their rights (Shapiro, 1993).

The Americans with Disabilities Act protects the rights of adults with disabilities to pursue opportunities of interest to them, in the same way other American citizens can pursue opportunities. For "adult, ... educators,...the ADA [is] both a challenge and an opportunity" (Imel, 1994).

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A DIALOGUE WITH JOHN OHLIGER: ISSUES OF EQUITY IN ADULT EDUCATION.

Tonette Rocco

ABSTRACT

John Ohliger has made many contributions to adult education for several decades. His contributions have included conceiving and nurturing Basic Choices, Inc. as a vehicle to keep the debate alive on mandatory continuing education, diversity and lifelong learning in addition to other issues. Ohliger's mission seems to have been to warn adult education about becoming complacent about adult education's purpose and tradition of social action.

INTRODUCTION

In the Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education (Merriam & Cunningham, 1989), Ohliger is mentioned in three separate chapters (Brockett, 1989; Galbraith & Zelenak, 1989; and Deshler & Hagan, 1989) apart from the one he wrote (Ohliger, 1989). In the Handbook of Adult Education (Smith, Aker & Kidd, 1970), he co-authored a chapter (Liveright & Ohliger, 1970) and is mentioned in two other chapters (Schroeder, 1970; Johnson, 1970). These are a few of the citations referencing him in terms of mandatory continuing education, the future of adult education and as a radical adult educator in the company of Freire and Horton. He has been active in the field of adult education through his work with Basic Choices, Inc. An examination of his writings offers the opportunity to revisit issues of long-term importance to adult education and to know better our self proclaimed social conscience. The purpose of this paper is to provide a forum for the discussion of issues he has raised over the years and whether those issues remain relevant to the field. There are two streams of inquiry, related and equally important as research issues. The first is concerned with a discussion of the actual issues Ohliger raises. The second area of inquiry is an examination of the issues and the man behind them.

METHOD

Using Researching Lived Experience by van Manen (1990) as a guide, a phenomenological study is being conducted. The purpose of the study is to examine Ohliger's writings, the issues raised within them and their relevancy today. Ohliger's importance to the field has been to live by his principles, thereby serving as an exemplar to adult education and educators. These principles have determined his life choices influencing his "lived experience." My approach to discovering Ohliger's lived experience is one of immersion in his writings and by conversation with him. van Manen (1990) describes the approach by saying "to truly question something is to... 'live' this question, that we 'become' this question. Is this not the meaning of research: to question something by going back again and again to the things themselves until that which is put to question begins to reveal something of its essential nature (p. 43)?"

In "becoming" the question, it is important to use every data source imaginable. In this case, the data include Ohliger's writings and transcripts of talks, published by *Basic Choices*, and journals and books in the field including authors that cite his work or use his life and philosophy as part of their own work. This paper is framed by the issues emerging from the review of literature. It is a rare opportunity when a researcher's curiosity can be satisfied through dialogue with the subject of the research. An interactive discussion occurred via electronic mail.

ISSUES RAISED

Diversity, mandatory continuing education (MCE) and lifelong learning were chosen from the many issues raised by John Ohliger over the past thirty years. A quick search of the ERIC database for 1992 to March 1995 illustrates a continuing discussion. There are 2477 entries for diversity, 511 entries for lifelong learning, and 16 entries for MCE with 1133 for continuing education. Obviously, diversity and lifelong learning have been well represented over the past three years. A brief discussion of these issues, diversity, mandatory continuing education (MCE) and lifelong learning follows. The 16 entries for MCE (15 pertinent) will be discussed in the section on MCE .

DIVERSITY

Diversity is another term for "other." Ohliger

> regard(s) the emphasis on diversity as a diversion from the urgently important task of creating an equalitarian society--one equal economically and politically with real freedom for all. I feel the same way about such terms as 'equal opportunity,' 'affirmative action,' and 'the disadvantaged.' The last term is just one of the more recent ones, as Ivan Illich has pointed out, characterizing the 'other' throughout recorded history. It started with 'barbarian,' then became 'foreigner,' 'heathen,' etc. More recently it has been 'disadvantaged.' Perhaps the latest term, at least in higher education, is 'underrepresented.' All these terms are a form of tokenism, fostering the illusion that we already live in a free and equal society (1994a, p. 1).

Diversity is a pervasive theme in society discussed in the media, in schools and in business. We strive for diversity on our faculties. Educators provide diversity training. We speak of the needs of a diverse workforce. And yet some would maintain that the discussion of diversity in so many forums increases awareness to the inequities in this society. All of this discussion is masquerades as an effort to promote equal opportunity. Yet Ohliger (1994a) warns us, "In this world of grossly unequal distribution of wealth and power ruled by an economic elite, we need to be very wary whenever the term 'equal opportunity' is flashed. As the great British socialist adult educator R. H. Tawney said: 'Equality of opportunity is a fraud...the impertinent courtesy of an invitation offered to unwelcome guests in the certainty that circumstances will prevent them from accepting it.' (p. 3)" It is a label depicting those excluded from the mainstream of society from those included implicitly in the word society.

MANDATORY CONTINUING EDUCATION

Mandatory continuing education is any educational activity legally or professionally required to maintain or acquire licensure or certification in a profession (LeGrand, 1992; Ohliger, 1994b). It includes also legal mandates requiring individuals in need of rehabilitation to perform properly in society (Brockett, 1992; Ohliger, 1994b). Mandatory means the adult learner has no choice over whether he/she participates in an educational experience, which may be detrimental to the quality and quantity of the learning that occurs. When governments or professional organizations make learning mandatory these groups believe the results will be positive. Consumers will have increased protection. Fewer people will be on welfare and in our prisons. Ohliger (1989) suggests mandatory continuing education can also have negative outcomes. Others maintain that mandating professionals to continue their education acts as a safeguard for the public welfare. Is it a safeguard if the participant learns nothing or does not use the information to improve practice?

The negative consequences of MCE are greater than the benefits may be (Brockett, 1992). Brockett (1992) believes "MCE violates central principles of adult education practice, MCE creates a "punitive" attitude toward participation in adult and continuing education, and MCE does not ensure effective or competent performance" (p. 87). Ohliger would add a few more negative ramifications. MCE increases the gap between the haves and have nots, in knowledge, power and money. Evaluation of its effectiveness is almost impossible for a variety of reasons (Ohliger, 1994b), possibly enhancing the value of MCE as a political panacea for societies problems since it is so difficult to prove effectiveness. Of the 16 articles on MCE found in ERIC 1992 to 1995, only three investigated MCE's effect on an individual's competence concluding no increase in competency can be demonstrated (Garganta, 1989; Holt, 1992; Little, 1993). One of the 16 MCE articles wrote that mandating education is inappropriate for professionals (Morrison, 1992). Two articles point out MCE is here to stay making the continuing debate pointless (Fisher & Pankowski, 1992; Queeney & English, 1994). Three other articles provided general reviews of the literature (Brennan, 1991; Green, 1991) or the debate (Brockett, 1992; LeGrand, 1992) with two checking on compliance (Cooley & Thompson, 1992; Fore, 1992). One difficulty arises when the program evaluator has a vested interest in continuing the program and her/his job. The remaining four articles are studies designed to support MCE through attitude surveys, comparisons of mandatory and voluntary professional learning and minimizing resistance to MCE (Brennan, 1992; Coffee & Beegle, 1994; Fore, 1993; Wagner & Grosse, 1993). This brief analysis supports Ohliger's contention that research is not being done on MCE's effectiveness or on the disparate impact MCE has on the poor, undereducated and underrepresented.

Ohliger is concerned with the increasing gap between people with access to knowledge and those that do not have the same access. "No conceivable society can exist without a minimum of required learning, but the requirements should arise from the necessities of the human scale situation, not from rigidly imposed laws, regulations or social pressures....Don't get me wrong. I live and breathe education most of my days, but I see it as a sacred and delicate delight only subtly approachable. It is certainly not a sledgehammer solution to our personal and social crises" (1985 p. 1)

LIFELONG LEARNING

In 1974 Ohliger asked, "Is Lifelong Education A Guarantee Of Permanent Inadequacy?" As an adult educator, the words "lifelong learning" indicate jobs for educators, program funding and greater percentages of literate people. Or is the learning reserved only for those that can afford it? Lifelong learning is being promoted currently by politicians and K-12 educators as an extension of schooling to improve the workforce. In this way, isn't it mandatory continuing education for blue collar workers? In "Adult Education: 1984," a takeoff on the Orwell novel, Ohliger (1971) describes the future of adult education. He foresaw "permanent school districts" run by "boards of lifelong education" who mandated, for each event in a person's life--changing jobs, marriage, children, retirement--an educational program providing information on the transition being experienced. The real problem is the loss of choice, voluntariness and free will important to the human spirit (Ohliger, 1971; 1974).

Lifelong learning has become synonymous with mandatory continuing education. Learning for its own sake is being lost to us. People are judged by the number of degrees and other credentials gained through structured programs (Ohliger, 1988). Experts run the education industry diminishing the likelihood the average person will criticize or question the need for more schooling (Ohliger, 1988). There are two problems with this. First, society insinuates four year degrees are vital to acquiring worthwhile employment. Once employment has been realized people are informed additional education is needed in order to maintain skills, keep up with the information explosion or learn new skills for new jobs or careers. It amounts to false advertising by maintaining a four year degree is necessary for a good job and once that is attained the requirements change. The second problem is the lack of opportunity for the "average person" to participate in the any aspect of determining their education needs and or how the education will be acquired (Hapgood, 1974; Ohliger, 1988).

SUMMARY

The major concerns or themes through much of Ohliger's writing are intimately intertwined. Ohliger's concern with diversity is interwoven with his warnings about mandatory continuing education which intrudes on lifelong learning spoiling the purity of learning for its own sake. The term "diversity" acts to label those outside of the mainstream of society in a new way. More importantly diversity is seen as just another word for "other." Viewing people as us and them allows us to accumulate wealth and education for ourselves. MCE and lifelong learning act to maintain the power differential by increasing the access to knowledge of the privileged in society.

PRINCIPLES OF THE MAN AND HIS MISSION

"I believe I am totally implicated in all this criticism, all that I bemoan. I'm speaking as much, if not more, to myself here when I put down certain practices. Hypocrisy is a venial sin I hope. It points as much to a desire for a better world as masking disparities between practice and preaching" (1987 p. 2). The disparities between practice and preaching exist. Each adult educator should reflect on these differences to lessen the disparities.

Ohliger has considered himself a radical adult educator for forty years (1990) defining it this way:

> I claim the term refers to the concerns of those who seek to get to the root of the issues and to work towards fundamental social change for the better. But it is practically impossible to know more than fleetingly whether anyone has reached the root of an issue (p. 1).

He continued by describing four problems encountered when working for social change. "First, any true radical believes in democracy, so knowing what constitutes really basic change always depends on what the people will decide after relevant experience and due deliberation." Waiting on the "people" can take a lot of patience. One role of adult education is to facilitate experience and expedite deliberation. Second, visions of utopian societies are "social structures that have never existed, by definition its shape is unclear" (1990, p. 1).

A radical philosophy cannot be maintained "twenty-four hours a day. You'd die of exhaustion and isolation..." The third problem is, then, what other philosophies does the radical embrace in order to survive within the existing social structure. Ohliger could not or would not survive within the academic social structure at Ohio State (Cunningham, 1992) resigning his tenured associate professorship. Cunningham goes on to write, "he was punished by many, if not most, in the professoriate, who either ignored him or acted directly against him" (p. 111-112). There is a fine line between working within the establishment for change without compromising your principles and perpetuating the system one is trying to change. Change seems even more difficult to work for from outside the establishment. It is much easier to dismiss a "non academic" as irrational or irrelevant. Ohliger learned this lesson in time as the fourth problem of working towards fundamental social change.

> Fourth and finally, simple prudence and the need for social survival often require radicals to be cautious about coming right out and saying what changes are necessary, even or maybe especially if they are obvious. The two great radical adult educators, Paulo Freire and Ivan Illich, called themselves 'Pilgrims of the Obvious [Freire, 1975].' But the obvious is often the most difficult and dangerous to see (1990 p. 1).

These problems with radicalism are compounded by the difficulty in keeping the two halves together. One half is "a belief [in a] just social order based on human rationality" and the other is the "belief that ...a good society ...fosters spontaneous freedom through true community" (1990 p. 1).

RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS

LeGrand (1992) writes, "The debate over whether continuing education for professionals should be mandatory is passé. Even though the pace of introducing new requirements has slowed in recent years, MCE in some form is here to stay" (p. 96). The only thing left is "to accept the challenge of providing quality formal educational experiences while promoting the value of information for the individual practitioner" (LeGrand, 1992, p. 96). I do agree MCE is here to stay and I have, like John Ohliger participated in it. Unfortunately, believing that the only thing left is "to accept the challenge" destroys the validity of research on the effectiveness of MCE towards its goal of maintaining a minimum standard of professional competency. Adult educators should not create programs to fulfill legal or professional requirements without, first, questioning the basis of the requirement. If the premise of the mandate is flawed the continuing education program designed to support the mandate will be flawed also. And Ohliger will be right, MCE is simply a money making venture designed to secure employment for continuing professional educators.

Examples of research questions to be addressed are: Is learning enhanced when programs are voluntary or mandatory? How does MCE affect competence? How does it effect the knowledge level of the participant? Does diversity training lessen racism and its effects on the recipients of racist actions? Does diversity training increase the status of diverse populations in this society? What is lifelong learning--lifelong schooling or an individuals self directed learning project? Is lifelong learning an attitude towards learning that should be enhanced or is it society's means of developing a globally competitive workforce?

Ohliger raises issues that impact research and practice in fundamental ways. No clear research exists demonstrating positive or negative effects of diversity efforts, mandating continuing education, or lifelong learning. Diversity efforts, mandatory continuing education and lifelong learning are generally accepted in the field by both practitioners and researchers. The evidence is in the growth of mandatory continuing education, diversity trainers and lifelong education as the ideal for all adults. Where is the research demonstrating positive or negative effects of mandatory education, lifelong education or diversity efforts?

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TOWARD A CONCEPTUALIZATION OF DECONSTRUCTING PRIVILEGE

Tonette Rocco and G. Wayne West

ABSTRACT

The practice of adult educators who are members of the dominant culture is influenced by their privileged status. Since much of what is considered privilege is the result of uncritically accepted socialization, there is a need for members of the dominant culture to examine their privilege and how it affects them and their students. This paper utilizes the tools of deconstruction and heuristic study to present a conceptualization of how to deconstruct privilege.

INTRODUCTION

As we attended various research conferences, we were struck by the fact that all the sessions on race and gender were from the perspective of the members of marginalized groups. None of the presentations were made by members of the dominant culture as an attempt to explore their own efforts to become less racist or sexist. This observation prompted us to begin to ask questions as to why this was the case and what the ramifications were of such research being done only by members of the non-dominant groups.

This paper is a conceptualization of deconstructing privilege as research. It is the beginning of a larger study which will be conducted by the authors and two other co-researchers as a heuristic study (Moustakis, 1990) of the dominant culture by examining their own privilege and the role it plays in their lives. Research needs to be done to look for patterns that shed light on how one can take apart his or her own experiences to create a new perspective.

As we started our own work on privileged status, several research issues surfaced. Do members of the dominant group have the right to engage in such research or should they refrain because they are incapable of stepping outside of their privileged perspective? There has been much debate in the research community of "outsiders" doing research on others and the danger inherent in objectifying subjects. The question we raise is different in that we are asking "can dominant culture members step outside their privilege to examine themselves?"

PRIVILEGE, "ISMS" AND STEREOTYPES

Privilege is so ingrained that it is exercised by the privileged without much thought. Implications for those exercising privilege and privilege's impact on others is rarely considered by the privileged. It is ingrained in one's socialization making it natural to assume your experience is the same as everyone else's. White privilege is "an invisible package of unearned assets which I can count on cashing in each day but about which I was meant to remain oblivious" (McIntosh, 1989, p.10). Our privilege is everywhere and most often, since we never leave home without it, it is a strenuous exercise to discover it.

The existing social structure bestows privilege in a way that impacts relationships between people who would otherwise be peers; separating people into haves and have nots. The word privilege conjures up many images. One includes an extreme power differential between oppressor and oppressed. The characteristics that separate the oppressor from the oppressed allow the oppressors to benefit from unearned privilege simply by virtue of characteristics like gender and race (McIntosh, 1989). Our definition of privilege embraces the concept of polyrhythmic reality (Sheared, 1994) by accepting that an individual experiences intersecting realities simultaneously. We identified seven intersecting realities that bestow or deprive one of privilege. They are race, gender, age, ethnic origin, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation and able-bodiedness.

An "ism," regardless of whether it is based on skin color, gender, age, sexual orientation, class, physical ability or ethnicity, is composed of "thoughts, acts and procedures of a system that bases power of one group over another" (Flannery, 1994, p.17). Power is manifested in behaviors, policies and language sanctioned by institutions and society through consistent use. The use of power is so systematic and consistent that it is almost invisible and is assumed neutral (Hayes & Colin, 1994). It takes a great deal of effort to examine our language and behaviors for instances where we have diminished the worth of an individual simply by accepting or not questioning our socialization process. Another component of privilege is reflected in the belief system that portrays "others" as deficient, justifying discriminatory treatment (Hayes & Colin, 1994). This discriminatory treatment ranges from undervaluing the labor and other products of the individual to total dehumanization.

Stereotypes are beliefs about differences between groups of people that are considered to "be biological or 'natural' and we use them to define appropriate roles and behaviors" that "perpetuate inaccurate generalizations about people's characteristics" (Hayes & Colin, 1994, p. 6). These beliefs are inherent social concepts shaped by historical, social and political factors. These factors have persisted over time until other ways of knowing have been forgotten and there is only one reference point by which the norm is set. The existence of such a norm allows those born into the norm to set the standards by which all others are judged to be substandard, different or in some way deviant. This allocates power and privilege to the reference point (white males) regardless of their desire to have this privilege or their attempts to create an equitable society.

METHODS FOR INVESTIGATING PRIVILEGE

Privilege is based on uncritical acceptance of assumptions gained through socialization. Just as the dominant culture indoctrinates marginal groups with feelings of inadequacy and inferiority, they also indoctrinate their own members with feelings of adequacy and superiority. These uncritically accepted assumptions become tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1983) and form the basis for many of our actions regarding privilege. We operate from knowledge that is below the surface of consciousness. Seeing privilege as tacit knowledge helps explain how we find our actions out of sync with our espoused beliefs. Drawing on the work by Chris Argyris (1982) on the differences between espoused theories and theories-in-use we can see that tacit knowledge many times is what is behind theories-in-use.

Strategies borrowed from both deconstruction and heuristic inquiry are methods that allow us to investigate privilege.

DECONSTRUCTION

In the office of Dr. Patti Lather, a noted author/researcher on deconstruction, is a yellow highway construction sign with the inscription, "Reality Under Deconstruction." That phrase captures the belief of deconstructionists that reality is not a universal truth but rather a social construct that can be deconstructed.

There are no pure beginnings. To deconstruct traditional concepts we must use existing language which is already contaminated with traditional meanings. In other words, we must use the very tools (language) that we are attempting to deconstruct. This leads to what Lather (1991a, p. 154) refers to as "paradoxical 'double movement' or 'doubled consciousness' regarding contestatory and reproductive dimensions of our efforts to make meaning." As we deconstruct text, we create new text, which we then deconstruct.

If we accept that there are no pure beginnings, we accept that nothing is innocent and everything can be contested. Deconstructionists reject absolutes and celebrate differences. This position recognizes the multiplicity of truths and the impossibility of a singular truth. It also recognizes that if there are competing discourses, then everything is political. Objectivity, meaning and truth are the end products of power. Deconstruction, as a critical theory, evolved as a response to structuralism, which is an attempt to give a center and a structure to works of art, literature, or even societal issues. In short, structuralism, according to deconstruction theorists, is a vain stab at unveiling the organization of an object of study, primarily by identifying a central concept or theme.

Derrida built upon Heidegger's position by saying that we had to move away from a fixed center for meaning. By moving away from the center, we are making the certain uncertain. Deconstructionists are not seeking coherent theories. They are looking for competing, alternative, and conflicting views. Deconstructionists encourage the multiplicity of as many voices and perspectives as possible without seeking to reconcile them (Barbules & Rice, 1991). What passes for fact is based upon other facts, which when deconstructed, will eventually lead back to constructed theories. Derrida would recognize that there are standards upon which to measure one position against the other. But what he would reject is that there is a single standard.

By moving from a found world to a constructed world (Lather, 1991b) we allow for deconstruction which safeguards us from dogma (Lather, 1991a). Caputo (1987, p.156) states, "The goal of deconstruction is to keep things in process, to disrupt, to keep the system in play, to set up procedures to continuously demystify the realities we create, to fight the tendency for our categories to congeal." By challenging the accepted truths and structures, deconstruction can be used as a strategy for furthering emancipatory interests. The recognition that everything is political allows us to see that all discourse is political and exists for the enfranchising of certain group interests over others (Barbules & Rice, 1991).

Lather (1991c) borrows from Elizabeth Grosz's work in feminist studies to explain the three steps of deconstruction. The first step is to identify opposite positions (binaries) that structure an argument. An example of binaries is that some people are privileged by race and/or gender and others are marginalized by the same characteristics. Step two involves reversing/displacing the dependent term from its negative position to a place that locates it as the very condition of the positive term. Women's Ways Of Knowing (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger and Tarule, 1986) is an example of such a reversal. This study has enriched our knowledge of adult development and validated learning styles other than their traditional analytical model. A third step is to create a more flexible and less coercive conceptual organization of terms that transcends a binary logic by simultaneously being both and neither of the binary terms. Feminist pedagogy is emancipatory and freeing, emphasizing that there are many learners who have been silenced and excluded (Bailey, 1993). By definition, feminist pedagogy would appear in the female binary camp. Yet by stressing inclusion, feminist pedagogy liberates both men and women from roles of oppressor and oppressed and thereby transcends both binaries.

HEURISTICS

The term heuristics is a Greek word meaning discover. In heuristic inquiry the researcher becomes the instrument of discovery through self-discovery. Clark Moustakis (1990) draws on the work of Polyani around tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge is what we know but can't explain. It is closely related to intuition which Moustakis says is the bridge between tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge. What is occurring in heuristic inquiry is that internal, implicit knowing is being made explicit and conscious. What we know but can't articulate is being discovered and articulated.

The internal focus of heuristic inquiry requires self-discovery, self-search and self-dialogue. Indwelling is not a linear or logical process but a deliberate and conscious effort to become aware of what you are experiencing.

There are five phases to heuristic inquiry: 1.) initial engagement, 2.) immersion, 3.) incubation, 4. illumination and 5.) creative synthesis. The initial engagement is the discovery of an intense passion through an inner search. During this phase the researcher is looking inward for tacit knowledge by letting intuition run free. This process allows for the question to be formed, defined and clarified. Immersion is the process of the researcher living the experience. Incubation is a retreat from the intensity of the experience. This allows the tacit knowledge to come to the forefront. Illumination is the process that occurs when there is conscious awareness of new learning. Explication is where the new learning is furthered through indwelling and focusing. The final phase of creative synthesis refers to a drawing together of all knowledge learned from the experience and presented with new insight.

Heuristic inquiry is a method that could be used to surface the tacit knowledge surrounding privilege so that it could be deconstructed. For us deconstructing privilege will take the form of an autobiographical account of how each characteristic allows us privilege and/or permits our oppression. We fully expect that transformation of our meaning perspectives (Mezirow, 1991) will be the outcome of our heuristic study for which this paper lays the conceptual foundation.

AN EXEMPLAR

In our larger study the co-researchers will keep journals in which they dialogue with themselves on issues of privilege as a method of surfacing tacit knowledge. Intensive dialogue sessions designed to explore commonalties as well as incongruencies will be held. The journals and dialogue transcripts will be coded and analyzed for emerging patterns and exceptional cases.

These preliminary findings will be presented to two panels. The first panel will be composed of individuals who identified themselves as members of marginalized groups. The second panel will be composed of members of the dominant culture. These panels will react to our initial findings which we will utilize for further self-reflection. A second round of intensive dialogue will occur among the co-researchers in order to synthesize any new insights.

IMPORTANCE TO ADULT EDUCATION

Adult educators of the dominant culture "must understand the role that they play in perpetuating racism" (Colin & Preciphs, 1991, p. 67). If you don't experience it and can't see it, how do you understand it? If out of innocence and naiveté you believe racism is declining and all but non existent, how can you acknowledge your part in it? What are the standards used to determine you are not a racist? How can we understand our part in racism when we don't experience it? The dilemma of not experiencing a phenomenon is that a person may be unaware of its existence or diminish its significance because "they've never seen it" (Hayes, 1994). As Myles Horton (1990) points out, if you are going to engage in democratic education, you have to know yourself. Otherwise, you will be operating out of feelings of guilt or superiority and reproducing the situations that you hope to change.

". . . if we want to understand and interrupt the perversions and pleasures of power, privilege, and marginalization" then we must allow "these voices, once marginalized, to be heard and centered" (Weis & Fine, 1993, p.2). Members of the dominant culture need to look at how their privilege contributes to the silencing of so many other voices. Is this not the principle behind social action and one of the foundations of adult education?

The silencing of voices within adult education, evidenced by the absence of diversity in most historical accountings of adult education, will continue unless we become aware of how our privileged status guides our practice and research. Privilege allows some voices to be heard while silencing others. One method of silencing voices is to claim universality or generalizability of theories or concepts based on the white, male experience (Collard & Stalker, 1991). Universality acts as "a discriminatory criterion because it extends and imposes theories on all people" (Flannery, 1994, p. 22), effectively silencing anyone whose experience is different as being the exception to the rule.

A fundamental principle of adult education is respect for the learner. Yet, one has to assume from their absence at the African American preconference to the AERC that the adult education professoriate either see no differences between African American and Caucasian learners or they already are knowledgeable about African American learners or they do not see the relevance to their professional practice to pursue such issues. Unfortunately, we believe to most there is no difference or knowing about the differences is not important. Certainly, these attitudes do not respect the differences found in the classroom population.

The importance of the issue is that failure to be aware of privilege leads to the reproduction of the same structure of privilege that currently results in oppression and division within our society. Since all research is affected by the questions we ask and the perspectives we bring as researchers, we need to become aware of our own attitudes as practitioners and researchers. As bell hooks states, "Sexist-racist attitudes are not merely present in the consciousness of men in American society; they surface in all our ways of thinking and being" (1981, p.8). Unless we critically reflect upon our privilege it remains part of our uncritically accepted socialization.

CONCLUSION

Much of the literature dealing with multiculturalism and issues of privilege is from the perspective of marginalized groups or from the dominant culture's attempts to include others as add-ons. Little has been written about the deconstruction of privilege by dominant culture members. Deconstructing privilege could uncover information that will be useful in making diversity and multicultural programs more effective. By examining the attitudes one learns from uncritical acceptance of meaning perspectives acquired through socialization, we can transform them into new meaning perspectives. These new meaning perspectives will be based on reflective learning and critical awareness of one's role in interacting with the rest of the world.

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THE POST- HEROIC LEADERSHIP ERA: IMPLICATIONS FOR ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION

Lorilee R. Sandmann

ABSTRACT

Leadership theory and practice is going through a radical evolution from hierarchical/mechanical models to "heterarchial"/organic models. Such a shift requires changes in personal practice, conceptual thinking and organizational application. Early in 1994, a task force created under the aegis of Michigan State University Extension was charged with exploring contemporary leadership development models and with articulating a conceptual framework to guide its existing and future community-based leadership development efforts. This article summarizes the definition, values, and principles of the framework. From the point of view of this framework, leadership development shifts from individual-centered to collective centered; from packaged curriculum to customized educational processes focused on building relationships; and from discrete leadership development programs to leadership development embedded in concrete issues identified by the participants in the process. Implications are offered for those involved in leadership development educational programs.

> *It is not leadership from any one person that is required, it is an aspect of leadership each of us summons from within. In this respect, the same qualities we have sought in one person can be found distributed among many people who learn, in community, to exercise their 'leadership' at appropriate moments. This occurs when people are vitally concerned about issues or when executing their responsibilities. Leadership thus becomes a rather fluid concept focusing on those behaviors which propel the work of the group forward.*
>
> –John Nirenberg (1993:198)

INTRODUCTION

The philosophy of leadership implicit in leadership development programs of the past is no longer adequate for dealing with the complex problems inherent in communities and organizations today. This implicit philosophy assumes that leadership rests in individuals who must be capable of inspiring and influencing others to solve problems and achieve goals. However, this "heroic" view of leadership is often based on a deficiency view of people, as Peter Senge points out.

> *Especially in the West, leaders are* ***heroes****–great men (and occasionally women) who 'rise to the fore' in times of crises....At its heart, the traditional view of leadership is based on assumptions of people's powerlessness, their lack of personal vision and inability to master the forces of change, deficits which can be remedied only by a few great leaders.* (1990:340)

A new philosophy of leadership is emerging. Dubbed "post-heroic" leadership (Huey, 1994), it is based on bottom-up transformation fueled by shared power and community building. John Nirenberg's *The Living Organization*, quoted earlier, eloquently expresses the fluid, distributed, community, and action-oriented nature of leadership from this perspective.

What are the implications of this shift in theory for research and practice to adult and continuing educators–those directly involved in the personal practice of leadership, conceptual thinking and teaching about leadership and leadership development, and organizational applications of leadership? This paper summarizes the shifting view of leadership from hierarchical/mechanical models to "heterarchial"/organic models, articulates one conceptual framework to guide community-based leadership development efforts of a major university-sponsored organization, and offers implications for those involved in leadership educational programs.

A NEW LEADERSHIP PARADIGM

In some of the most innovative organizations in America today, replacing an individual-centered leadership philosophy with one centered on community-building and shared leadership has met with great success. Reasons given for this change are the bewildering complexity of problems that defy easy solutions and the plethora of information available. Leaders need to rely heavily on the knowledge and experience of each member of their organizations. Added to this is the growing dissatisfaction of people working in "command and control" hierarchical organizations. People are no longer content to live in a democracy while spending much of their time in the repressive, autocratic systems of their organizations. As a result, future-looking organizations are undergoing a leadership revolution for their own health and survival.

Table 1 presents a summary of assumptions from the old paradigm (1) and the new paradigm (2). These assumptions are pictured as two ends of a continuum. It is probable that leaders and groups range from one end of the continuum to the other on each of the variables, depending on the needs of the group or the situation and the personalities and abilities of the leaders.

To be fully immersed in the new paradigm requires a transformation in three areas of leadership: personal practice, conceptual thinking, and organizational application. In the personal practice of leadership, the integration of spirit and leadership are viewed as essential (Conger, 1994; Hawley, 1993; Palmer, 1994). In conceptual thinking about leadership, there is a need for a fundamental shift to change deep-seated mental models about leadership (Senge, 1990; Rost, 1993 and 1991; Nirenberg, 1993). As Peter Block (1993) puts it, we need to choose partnership over patriarchy, empowerment over dependency, and service over self-interest. In describing organizational applications of this new paradigm, a growing number of authors are using terms like learning, living, renewing or inventing organizations (Senge 1990, Kofman and Senge, 1993; Nirenberg, 1993; Oakley and Krug, 1993; Janov, 1994).

Although various authors differ in their scope and focus when describing the personal, conceptual, and organizational transformations required by the new leadership paradigm, there are at least three common themes: shared leadership, leadership as relationship, and leadership in community. The idea of **shared leadership** is variously termed dispersed, roving, distributive, collective, or group-centered leadership, and organizations are referred to as "leaderful." The assumption is that all of us have leadership qualities that can be pooled and drawn upon as needed, when working with others on vital common issues. The related theme, **leadership as relationship**, revolves around the idea of a network of fluid relationships and is built on the concepts of empowerment, participation, partnership, and service (Borwick, 1995).

The third theme, **leadership in community,** envisions community as the conceptual setting in which the leadership relationship takes place. "Communities of commitment" (Kofman and Senge, 1993) represent a shift from competition and self-centeredness and provide both a model for organizing and a haven for the expression of spirituality, the practice of new ways of relating, and the promotion of important values such as trust, commitment, sharing, and ownership.

COMMUNITY ACTION LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Michigan State Univeristy Extension (MSUE) found itself engaged in vigorous, yet highly dispersed efforts in leadership development. The need for a coherent framework was expressed in various ways. Some associated with MSUE felt that leadership development programs suffered from the lack of a clearly articulated unifying vision. Others cited a lack of evidence of lasting change resulting from leadership development programs and the need for long-term evaluations. Some criticized leadership development programs generally for often being too short-term, top-down, and generic, and for a focus on personal enrichment rather than the systematic development of groups wanting to bring about change (MSU Extension Leadership Academy Task Group, 1992). The Michigan State University experience reflected the situation nationally. A 1990 national study on Extension leadership development (Michael, Paxson and Howell) reported that although a great

Table 1: Assumptions About Organizational and Community Leadership from Two Paradigms

Relational Variables	**Paradigm 1**	**Paradigm 2**
Leadership	single, one head	shared, dispersed, roving
Leader Roles	manager, boss, director	coach, mentor, steward, facilitator, community builder
Member Roles	subordinates, followers dependent	collaborators, partners empowered
Leader-Follower Relationship	control, direct, patronize	empower, develop, co-learn
Organizational Variables		
Vision	developed by the leader who persuades, inspires, sells	developed collaboratively, owned by the members
Organizational Culture	production, compliance, self-interest, homogeneity	community, commitment, service, diversity
Structure	hierarchy; clear boundaries	networks; overlapping, changing boundaries
Governing Force	policies, rules	vision, values
Operational Variables		
Mode of Action	problem-solving, reactive, adaptive	creative, inventive, learning-oriented, future-oriented
Action Strategy	plan – do	engage in group learning cycle: analyze, act, reflect
Decisions	top-down, consultive	democratic
Leadership Development		
Purpose	to develop leader's skills, traits, and behaviors in order to influence others	to learn to facilitate and build community, and to develop, educate, and empower others

deal of time was being spent on leadership development efforts, "on average staff spent seven hours per week trying to develop leadership skills among clientele, i.e. 15% of their work time," staff tended to teach skills associated with stable social order and similarity in social values, working within groups, and knowing how to do things right (transactional leadership). There was an apparent emphasis on "doing over understanding." Further, the study found the Extension staff gave less emphasis to dealing with change, diversity and conflict, transformational or visionary leadership and to those situations involving knowledge, perception and attitude.

Therefore, in 1994 a task force was charged by the director of MSUE with articulating a conceptual framework to guide existing and future community-based leadership development efforts. It was projected that a unifying framework could also contribute to (a) a common language that program planners and participants involved in community-based leadership development could use to share plans, experiences, and results with each other; (b) a design for assessing the impacts of the many variations of community action leadership development programs, and for identifying factors instrumental in creating lasting change; and (c) a stronger basis from which faculty and staff members could develop inquiry, share experiences and establish partnerships with others, both at the university and in local communities, engaging in community-based leadership development.

The members of this task force were university faculty members and Extension field staff members with expertise in community leadership development. They led an iterative cycle of discussions among university faculty members, Extension experts, and community leaders. The ideas that emerged from these discussions and from the literature form the definition, values, and principles of the framework that follows. A more comprehensive description of the conceptualization, including assumptions, concepts, success scenarios and examples are presented in the task force final report and is available from the author.

Post-heroic Leadership Defined

The task force concluded that post-heroic leadership development is to be holistic: it is centered in groups or organizations, rather than individuals, and engages the group in heart, mind, spirit, and energy. The driving forces of this philosophy, then, are **community**, the heart of a group's leadership; **vision**, which engages the spirit; **learning**, which stimulates the mind; and **action**, which compels energy. From this point of view, leadership development shifts from individual-centered to collective-centered; from a packaged curriculum to an evolving, customized educational process focused on building relationships; and from discrete leadership development programs to leadership development embedded in concrete issues identified by the participants in the process. The particular niche of a community-based, university sponsored leadership development effort was labeled community action leadership development (CALD) and defined as *the development of energized communities of co-leaders and co-learners committed to concerted action toward a collective vision* (Vandenberg and Sandmann, 1995).

Action Values

Embedded in the CALD definition are six action values, to which a seventh is added.

1) **Visioning Together.** Developing a shared vision that is future-focused and built on a group's strengths is an essential starting point. Visioning engages the spirit, gives meaning and purpose to group efforts, and allows members to rise above self-interest and maintain motivation. A shared vision provides a boundary for action.

2) **Leading Together.** In "leaderful" organizations, leadership roles are shared and everyone takes responsibility for group process and action. Trust, developed in part through honest and open communication, is the foremost requirement. Designated leaders promote the development of each person by modeling, inspiring, teaching, delegating, and serving.

3) **Learning Together.** Effective community action leadership is based on knowledge, which provides substance to a vision and informs action. Group members bring knowledge but also build knowledge through learning cycles. Learning cycles involve planning, acting and reflecting together.

4) **Building Community.** At the heart of community action leadership is a caring community with strong, trusting intragroup relationships forged by visioning, leading, learning, and acting together. A sense of community is reflected in feelings of identity and commitment, in acceptance and appreciation of diversity, and in constructive processes for examining and

mediating conflict.

5) **Developing Energy.** Collective energy is a group's ability to develop or obtain the resources necessary to achieve its goals. To nurture it, a group must focus on organizational development or capacity building. Collective energy requires promoting collective ownership in visioning, learning, planning, decision making, and action.

6) **Acting Together.** Acting together focuses collective energy and gives life to a vision. The action process requires teamwork, political analysis and strategizing, and the astute organizing of a community's assets and resources. Facilitators--designated leaders or consultants--must be committed to the process, dedicated to the welfare of the group, and detached from a need to hold power and control.

7) **Communicating.** A group engaging in community action leadership must have strong interpersonal communication. Improving communication requires the practice of dialogue--listening to understand, reflecting on one another's opinions, keeping open-minded attitudes, and ultimately, discovering common ground amidst diversity. Collecting and exchanging valid and reliable information builds trust, contributes to effective co-learning, and helps ensure relevant and well-targeted actions. Networking is an effective means of forging wide-ranging linkages that can lead to collaboration and community building with others in partnerships and coalitions.

Principles

Communities committed to being leaderful are not leaderless. Designated leaders under this conception, however, do not fit the common notion of leader as hero. Rather they are designers, teachers and stewards who practice the following six principles of community action leadership development. The first four are methodological, involving learners in processes that they will use, in turn, as leadership facilitators. The other two are content principles.

1) **Facilitation.** Leadership development efforts should be based on informal or nonformal teaching, better described as facilitation. CALD involves facilitating the development of a cohesive learning group which values diversity and resolves conflict constructively. This process is based on respect, encouragement, and community building.

2) **Learner Focus.** To customize leadership development, learning facilitators need to understand the context in which their leadership is situated; the learners' needs, desires, and strengths; and the issues being addressed. The most effective method of ensuring relevant, tailor-made CALD is to give participants control of the learning process by engaging them in an on-going process of visioning, planning, decision making, and reflecting about their leadership learning experiences.

3) **Leadership Focus.** Learner-focused leadership development does not mean leader-focused. Leadership exists as a set of relationships among group or organization members; everyone in the group has leadership potential and can play leadership roles at various times. This view implies a group-centered approach to leadership development, one centered on organizational development and capacity building.

4) **Issue/Action Focus.** Out-of-context leadership development programs have limited impact because the transfer of learning to real-life situations rarely happens. Therefore, CALD efforts that aim for long-term impact must incorporate learning centered around real **issues** that groups are facing, learning in **action**, and on-going **reflection** or collective self-examination.

5) **Non-Prescription.** The content of CALD efforts cannot be prescribed. It must be determined with and by participants. The first meeting of a CALD program could consist of an overview of community action leadership, an outline of possible content areas, and an organizational

diagnosis exercise. The outline could be organized around the seven action values, subdivided into many more specific topics to choose from.

6) **Process as Content.** In many ways, the process or methodology of CALD efforts is the content. By being part of a CALD learning group based on the methodological principles described above, participants can learn facilitation, community building, teamwork, group planning and decision making, organizational development, conflict management, and group reflection.

TOWARD 21ST CENTURY LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: THEORY TO PRACTICE LINKAGE

Those in adult, continuing and community education are poised to make community action leadership development its hallmark of the 21st century and to make a timely contribution to the burgeoning field of community leadership development. It is important to note that this conceptual framework is **not** a prescription. It is not a "program" or a curriculum. Leadership development, in this conception, is not a "commodity" to "deliver." It is not a how-to manual or an iteration of current practice. It **is**, rather, a perspective, a set of ideas, a way of thinking--the architecture underlying multiple variations of community action leadership development. Its purpose is to provide a contemporary, reasoned, vision-driven, value-based guide for thinking about, working in, and organizing community action leadership development. It is also, at this point, a hypothetical way of thinking and acting.

For some practitioners, still grounded in individual-focused, heroic, hierarchical, contextual leadership development, this framework may represent a substantial departure from current thinking and practice. Therefore, the following are offered as ways CALD efforts can become learning laboratories to develop, experiment (e.g., test), and implement CALD in practice. Examples include:

- **dissemination** through engaging in dialogue with adult educators to discuss, understand, elaborate and further develop the framework;
- **professional development** in the CALD philosophy and practice through short courses, certificate or academic program emphasis or an integration of concepts across academic courses, or setting up safe "practice fields" for groups interested in experiencing community action leadership as a means of training;
- **programming supports** for practitioners and scholars to adapt existing framework-compatible programs or develop new ones, or to facilitate community-university collaboration in applied research and evaluation for program development and improvement;
- **sustainability** by applying the framework philosophy to the internal operation of adult education organizations, and by establishing cross disciplinary, multi-state networks to promote dialogue, training, experimentation and research.

The exploration of this framework is offered with the fervent hope that adult, community, and continuing educators are ready to take the lead in practicing and reflecting upon a community-centered leadership paradigm. There is both opportunity and responsibility. There is the opportunity to take advantage of the unique position as a practice-based field associated, in many cases, with institutions of higher education, to usher in a new era in leadership development, one characterized by community, learning, vision, and action. There is also the responsibility— given the field's history and current work with leadership development, and its mission of extending knowledge to citizens who need it--to embrace, model, share, and further develop this new, post-heroic, people-centered approach.

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PREPARATION FOR PEER MENTORING:
A PILOT PROJECT

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ABSTRACT

This study dealt with the Latino population at Northern Illinois University (NIU) during Summer semester, 1995. This preparation program was developed to help peer mentors learn more about themselves and their own assumptions about their culture, others' cultures, and the university setting.

The following questions were considered while formulating the pilot project: 1) What do the peer mentors know about themselves, the school climate, the social and racial environment, and the teaching faculty? 2) To what extent are students reasonable in their thinking? 3) How well can students reflect on their thinking? 4) To what degree are students flexible, tolerant, and willing to know others? 5) How well can students integrate their ideas with others? 6) To what magnitude are students willing to learn from other student peer mentors?

The summer pilot project was indeed effective for the participants involved. One recommendation that evolved from the study was that prospective mentors should be allowed the opportunity to register for undergraduate credit when they sign up for the preparation for peer mentoring program. This proposal was accepted, and a three-credit hour course based on the original pilot project was offered for the first time during Spring semester, 1995.

INTRODUCTION

The demographic changes occurring across this country will create even more challenges for education at all levels in the 21st century. By that time, the *Commission on Minority Participation in Education and American Life* states that more than half of the schools in the United States will be culturally diverse (Policies Commission for Business and Economic Education, 1991).

Although a larger number of culturally diverse groups are currently seeking a higher education, their retention rates continue to remain lower than the mainstream population (Associated News Press, 1994 and Cox and Associates, 1992). To help reduce this problem, universities across the United States are investing in mentoring. The ultimate goal of mentoring programs within a college setting is an increased retention rate especially among minority groups such as Latinos and African-Americans. Mentoring is a means to assist adult learners during one of their most difficult and disorienting periods: the transition into the university setting. Daloz (1986) believes that when mentors assist their mentees during this transitional phase, they are also giving explanations to the larger context of education and society in general.

PURPOSE OF PROJECT

The purpose of this project was to develop a preparation program for students so that they can be more effective peer mentors. This pilot plan addresses the problem of whether students' commitment levels to becoming more successful mentors can be enhanced.

This particular study dealt with the Latino population at Northern Illinois University (NIU). Generally speaking, the term "Latino" describes persons who can trace their ancestry either to Spanish-speaking regions of the Caribbean and Latin America or to Spain (Latino Institute, 1994). "Latina" is a gender-specific term often used when referring to Latino women.

BACKGROUND

As of 1993, because of the partnering efforts of the University Resources for Latinos (URL) with area neighborhoods, high schools, and community colleges, NIU saw a 124 percent growth in Latina/Latino transfer students from 2-year institutions and a 57 percent growth in undergraduate students (University Resources for Latinos, 1993).

To help raise the retention rate of NIU's Latina/Latino student population, the URL established a peer mentoring program. Volunteers meet with new students (freshmen and transfer) for approximately the first six weeks of the semester. Participation in URL's mentoring program has grown from 20 volunteers in 1987 to 50 in 1990 (University Resources for Latinos, 1991). The peer mentors help to provide social and academic information that aids the new students in their adjustment to life at NIU.

URL'S PREPARATION FOR PEER MENTORING PILOT PROJECT

NEED FOR STUDY

Since the peer mentoring program was established by the URL in 1987, NIU has seen the retention rate of the Latina/Latino students increase by approximately 13 percent. However, other than a one-page brief, the URL does not provides its volunteers with any formal preparation for their role in the mentoring process.

GOALS

The pilot program that evolved is based on several learning-to-learn theories and concepts. The three goals of a successful preparation approach are that peer mentors should gain a better understanding of 1) themselves as individuals and as learners, and how being a member of a marginalized culture affects these two variables; 2) the university environment in which they are studying and the resources available to students; and 3) their role and responsibilities as mentors. The assumption is that these three objectives combined will result in a deeper commitment to being more successful mentors.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE PROJECT

This mentoring preparation project was organized using a combination of problem-based and collaborative learning taken from the writings of Barrows (1988) and Smith and Associates (1990), respectively, as well as Kolb's (1984) experiential learning. The following issues were taken into consideration when the mentoring preparation project was designed.

SPECIAL CULTURAL NEEDS

The issue of special cultural requirements was acknowledged throughout mentoring literature in three ways. First, R. John Dagenais (1990) sets the stage by saying a mentee's chances of success are increased by having a mentor. According to Dagenais, all successful people have had a mentor at one point in their careers. This point is reiterated by Curnutte (1993). His research found that prejudice and lack of preparation are not the main reasons why moving into higher levels in business is more difficult for minorities. Instead, the number one barrier is the lack of mentoring, the lack of somebody to go to who can show the shortcuts and the ropes. This situation in the business world mirrors what is happening in the academic community. In addition, Walter and Siebert's research (1993) (as cited in What graduating seniors say, 1994) showed that graduating college seniors in their study identified "personal contacts with students" as the most significant factor contributing "to their successful and satisfying college careers."

Second, disadvantaged college students need mentors more than others. Baldwin and Wold (1993) define a disadvantaged student as one who possesses two out of the three following traits: an entering grade point average (GPA) of less than 2.5, first-generation college student, or income (for a family of four) less than the Federal poverty guidelines (under $14,999). When following these guidelines, nearly one of four Latino individuals in the 1989 Chicago Metropolitan area lived in poverty (Latino Institute, 1994). Since most of NIU's Latina/Latino students come from this geographic area, over half of the URL's potential mentees most likely come from economically-disadvantaged families.

LEARNING-TO-LEARN THEORIES

Problem-Based Learning. Problem-based learning (PBL) is a methodology of learning in which a group of individuals, usually four to seven members, cycles through a case problem two or more times. The design of this technique is identified with Dr. Howard Barrows, Associate Dean of the Southern Illinois University School of Medicine. Case studies bridge the gap between theory and practice through discussions. This procedure is useful in exploring complex problems especially when explicit answers do not exist (Merseth, 1991). In addition, cases are useful for personal study and self reflection and growth.

Collaborative Learning. This learning process involves group work. Group members discuss a common project until consensus is reached. This type of project allows individuals to learn not only about the subject being discussed but also about how groups function and how they operate within a group setting (Smith, 1990).

The student clusters utilized in the mentoring preparation project were designed to be a combination of growth and problem-solving groups. Unlike straight learning groups, "growth groups" concentrate on teaching participants more about themselves (Adler and Rodman, 1991). The problem-solving aspect, on the other hand, is when the mentors worked together to discuss the problematic situations presented in the case studies.

Experiential Learning. This learning approach is called "experiential" on two grounds (Kolb, 1984). First, this theory has clear ties to the intellectual works of Dewey, Lewin, and Piage. Second, experience plays a central role in the learning process. The implied goal of an experiential exercise is learning how to learn. This method provides an orderly and systematic way of working on improving learning efficiencies and as a means to overcome theoretical constraints.

FINDINGS

The first day of the program, the students were asked the question, What motivated you to volunteer for the peer mentoring pilot project? Although many different responses were given, the most common reason related to helping someone like they were helped. The students were also asked what they believed they (or anyone else) needed to know to become better mentors. The responses to this question were varied, but all agreed that they would like to learn the characteristics of an ideal mentor.

EVALUATION INSTRUMENT

Commitment to Mentoring. The results of the survey completed at the end of the second session show that the pilot project for these participants was indeed effective. The second statement, "Overall, this mentoring pilot project has helped me to become a more committed mentor," received a median score of 4.14 on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 with 5 being *Yes, Very Helpful.*

The tenth statement, "The process of discussing successful mentoring has helped me become a more committed mentor," was given a higher median score of 4.67. Since the ultimate goal of the researchers was to devise a program that would enhance mentors' commitment levels, this program was indeed successful.

Another positive indicator of the program's achievement was the responses to the thirteenth statement: Now that you have successfully finished this pilot project, would you be willing to assist other possible Latina/Latino mentors in completing a similar program in the fall? On the Likert scale of 1 (No) to 5 (Yes), this statement earned a median score of 4.71. Five of the seven circled "5" for "Yes." The other two circle "4."

Knowing Self. The first goal of a successful preparation approach was determined to be that peer mentors should gain a better understanding of themselves as individuals and as learners, and how being a member of a marginalized culture affects these two variables. Statements four and five on the survey dealt with this area specifically. The fourth comment, "The discussions about the case studies helped me to know myself better," ranked a median score of 4.29 on the Likert scale. The fifth, "The discussions about the case studies helped me to reflect about others' cultural differences better," earned a median value of 4.86.

University Environment. The second goal of an effective preparation program is that peer mentors should gain a better understanding of the university environment in which they are studying and the resources available to students. Statement 9 on the survey instrument, "The handouts and discussions about NIU services will help me be a better mentor," scored a perfect 5. This result verifies that this aspect of the program was a success.

Roles and Responsibilities as Mentors. The third goal of a productive preparation program is that peer mentors should gain a better understanding of their roles and responsibilities as mentors. This goal was also achieved. Statement 6, "The discussions about the case studies helped me to understand the needs of the mentees I will be helping," received a median score of 4.71. Statement 7, "The discussions about the case studies helped me to understand my responsibilities as a mentor better," scored a median 4.86.

Case Studies. All possible scenarios (dealing with gender, age, power, selectivity, and such) were addressed in the different case studies. The mentors truly enjoyed discussing the alternative solutions to the problematic situations presented. After the first session, students commented on how much they had benefited from the case study discussions. The second session ended with the same results.

Four statements on the evaluation form, four through seven, dealt with the use of case studies. These comments received median scores ranging from a low of 4.29 to a high of 4.86. These results are indicative of the effectiveness of this learning tool.

Another effective aspect was having students write their own case studies based on their own problematic experiences. Students took this assignment more seriously than the researchers thought they would. A sense of pride and accomplishment was evident when the typed versions were made available to the students during the second session.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

At the conclusion of both sessions, the researchers met to debrief. In addition, the students were asked for their recommendations at the end of the second session. The following section delineates some of the suggestions that will help to make the preparation program even a greater success.

BEING A "MENTOR"

What's in a name? The students questioned the use of the word, "mentor." Perhaps this term intimidated some from participating in the program. A mentor "wears many different hats" such as introducing new students to the new school environment, introducing them to social life, and helping them with academic issues. One idea was to call them "guides" instead. Also, some thought that more students might volunteer if the commitment time was reduced from the first six weeks of the fall semester to perhaps the first three.

At the close of the pilot study, students expressed that they still did not have a concrete idea of what a peer mentor is suppose to be. They thought that a handbook detailing some of the responsibilities would be helpful.

Selection. Once a larger mentor pool has been built up, mentees should be allowed some choice in the matter of selection. Perhaps mentees can complete a self-assessment inventory, which will allow the URL to match them with mentors who have comparable interests. The mentees can be asked if they prefer a man or a woman mentor and someone from a certain discipline. This procedure is similar to that used by NIU's *Freshman Connections* mentoring program. The participants in the pilot project suggested that the selection process of the mentors be more thorough as well. They believed this selection stage, as well as the training the mentors receive, is very important.

THE PREPARATION PROGRAM

After the completion of the summer pilot project, the researchers recommended that the preparation for peer mentoring program be expanded beyond a two-day format. In addition, prospective mentors should be allowed the opportunity to register for undergraduate credit when they sign up for the preparation for peer mentoring program. This recommendation was accepted by NIU's Provost's Office; and in Spring 1995, a three-credit hour class was offered through NIU's Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling Services. This first class attracted 25 students.

Since the URL had never tried this type of project before, many students were reluctant to give up a summer Friday and Saturday to participate in the pilot project, especially since they were not even certain what it was about. However, now that two groups have completed the preparation project (the initial summer pilot project and the first three-credit hour course offered this past Spring semester, 1995), the excitement for the program is spreading among the Latina/Latino students. Already almost 30 students have asked for permits to register for the preparation for peer mentoring program during Fall, 1995.

Mentees' Preparation. Another creative suggestion was that the mentees should also be prepared in a similar format to the mentors. Perhaps the mentors and their mentees could be equipped at the same time. This design will give them an opportunity to get to know each other better.

Having mentors and mentees go over case studies together can serve as a preventative coarse of action. Knowing some of the more common and probable scenarios might help new students to avoid irrational responses and decisions if faced with the same or comparable situations in the future.

Conclusion

The retention and graduation rates of minority students in a university setting must be increased. Peer mentoring is one way to achieve this goal. Although mentoring has been utilized by the URL since 1987, volunteers have not been prepared for this process in any formal way.

This pilot project was for a preparation program that helps peer mentors learn more about themselves and their own assumptions about their culture, others' cultures, and the university setting. The assumption was that if these three objectives were met, then volunteers would feel more committed to the mentoring program.

Although the number of Latinos who participated in the summer two-day program was small, significant results were still realized. All students who completed the evaluation instrument and who commented orally at the end of each session believed that this preparation program was a huge success.

The researchers' strong recommendation that this project be expanded to a credit course specific to the needs of the Latina/Latino student was enthusiastically accepted by NIU's Provost's Office. This new, expanded format will help to motivate attendance at the preparation meetings. With more Latinos participating as prepared mentors, retention rates of the Latino population at NIU are certain to increase.

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